

# THE CLEARING HOUSE

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## Editorial

We enter the new year with courage and hope. The American people have decided to go ahead. The mandate that was so overwhelmingly given to President Roosevelt and his associates for the continuance of the positive program of social action was far more than the approval of specific men or specific measures. It was a brave and unmistakable shout of "Yea!" to the query: Do we still wish to press forward, sometimes stumblingly, sometimes back-tracking, often contradictorily and clumsily, but always on and on and on?

However much it may have seemed that until now public education has been a mere stepchild of national and sometimes even of State governmental agencies engaged in struggling with the emergency, from this point on it is inevitable that public education must be part and parcel of the total general program of positive action.

The logic of economic development for at least two decades has pointed towards the time when the Federal Government would directly subsidize such education as the nation felt to be of general importance to its welfare. Precedents for such Federal aid had been established during the three quarters of a century preceding the economic collapse of 1929-1933.

It is not strange, nevertheless, that it has taken a half decade for an institution that has been so locally controlled as the public school to find its place in a national economy. Indeed, even today the conception of the school as a large-scale social instrument is

not widely held either by school teachers and administrators or even by all of the educational spokesmen who cry so vehemently for Federal aid in order that school services may be continued.

The rush of events is pressing towards consciousness on the part of the Federal Government that schools are social agencies and must be supported by Federal grants. But are public high schools ready to respond with the recognition that they are social institutions provided for social purposes rather than for the transmission of a relatively meaningless, purposeless traditional "culture" of erudition and intellectual snobbery? To be sure, the past quarter century has seen new emphases. Too often, nevertheless, these changes have been superficial, not grounded in other philosophy than exploitation or "being in the swim."

Let the faculties of individual schools examine their own school purposes and policies and programs and methods and personnel functions. Let them find a platform on the basis of which they may construct adequate school processes by which the purposes of our democracy may be best promoted.

Let them endeavor to construct, in partnership with pupils, parents, and other citizens and community agencies, a creative environment in which youths and adults may engage actively in maintaining and improving their schools and homes and parks and streets and churches and scouts and libraries and the other agencies and instruments that go to make up wholesome community living.

Let them at the same time undertake self-transformation from subject teachers to youth teachers. Let them help boys and girls to set up objectives for themselves which are dynamic, reasonable, and worth while, such objectives as may be found in one or more aspects of a vital and vigorous school and community environment. Let them be less interested in what youth cannot or will not do and more intent upon what each youth can do or can be lead to try to do. By such endeavors, teachers will perform the miracle of emerging from their cocoons wherein their natures have been cramped into passive assignment givers and lesson hearers and judges of children's efforts. They will develop into guides and friends and inspirers of youths who will know where they are going.

As teachers and administrators and supervisors struggle together to create and improve their own instruments they will be re-creating themselves. Only as they themselves are learning and growing are they fit companions for growing children.

Such revolutionary changes already characterize the best ten or fifteen per cent of our teachers in public high schools. If our schools are to justify the Federal aid that is asked for them, such teachers must be modal. Nor is such rapid growth of personality among our teachers impossible or even difficult to accomplish. The very richness and joy that creative participation assures finds fulfillment in helping youths to engage earnestly in school and community projects.

Administrators and older teachers can promote such a general transformation if they will encourage younger teachers to take active leadership in initiating and in acting as leaders for many new and unusual precedent-smashing projects. To the extent that they engage sincerely in such a revolution in traditional institutional procedures, administrators and supervisors will find themselves extending loyal coöperation to the younger teachers instead of merely asking it from them. However, administrators and super-

visors may rest assured that under such conditions they will receive far more than they give. Loyalty and coöperation cannot be demanded; it must be given voluntarily and happily, else it cannot be given at all.

The school as a social institution serving democratic society can realize itself only by reproducing within itself the spirit and activities and relationships that exemplify the democratic ideal. The traditional fascist hierarchical organization inherited from business and from militarism, whereby the principal gives orders to and demands obedience from teachers who give orders to and demand obedience from pupils and wherein all of them join together to amuse and befuddle parents and public with publicity and prestige, must go. Instead there must emerge a school characterized by social purposes and by partnerships of youths and adults in the establishment of social justice, in the pursuit of happiness, in the insurance of tranquility, the security of liberty, and the promotion of the general welfare.

Schools as well as governments are instituted among men to bring about these desirable conditions and they too derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. And such consent derives from the voluntary creative participation of pupils, parents, and teachers.

Teachers in New York State are quite properly disturbed because they are selected as a special class to take an obligatory oath to support the constitutions of their State and nation. Looked at more broadly, however, such loyalty is reasonably to be expected of each one of us. And such loyalty demands that we renew our faith in the dignity and potentialities of human beings—pupils, parents, administrators, and each other.

The Federal Government's acceptance of the public schools as national-social institutions should be and in the long run must be predicated in the development of a democratic school dedicated to the great purposes of our republic.

P. W. L. C.

# School Buildings as Efficient Laboratories for Coördinating Community Activities

N. L. Engelhardt

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The following article by Professor Engelhardt of Teachers College, Columbia University, is very timely in view of the emphasis now being placed upon the vital needs for close and sympathetic coöperation between the school and the community.*

A. D. W.

ONE HUNDRED AND TWO years ago one William A. Alcott of Hartford, Connecticut, was awarded a prize for an essay on the "Construction of School Houses." This prize essay appears in the 1831 *Proceedings of the American Institute of Instruction*. Certain excerpts from this essay are of as great interest today as they were when written. The author expressed ideals and illustrated conditions, the contrasts between which are relatively as great today as they were in that period. Here is an excerpt from Mr. Alcott's essay:

That the general arrangement and appearance of even inanimate things around us have an extensive influence in forming our character will hardly be questioned. Every object, and every individual we see, either renders us more cheerful and happy, or the contrary. The condition of those objects, therefore, which surround a collection of children, whether the number of those children be five, fifty, or one hundred, must of necessity have a very considerable influence in forming their dispositions, and giving a determination to their future character.

Nor is their present comfort a matter of indifference, any more than that of the same number of adults. Where is the parent to be found who would select as a location for his dwelling the junction of four roads, or a portion of the highway, or a sand-bank, marsh, or swamp? Or, who would choose, for this purpose, a bleak hill, a wilderness, or some lonely and secluded spot, rarely visited by man or beast? With a few misanthropic exceptions, mankind loves to dwell in airy places, affording a pleasant prospect. They are fond of having shade and fruit trees, shrubs, flowers, fountains, and greensward around their dwellings. The number of those who prefer the disagreeable sight of barren hills, and fields, and sand-banks, or the

nauseous and unwholesome exhalations of stagnant water, the barnyard and the sty, to the fragrance and rich scenery alluded to, must certainly be small; yet what is more common than to find schoolhouses exposed to many of these evils, and sometimes to all of them combined?

Mr. Alcott paints a rather dismal picture about the conditions to be found in the schoolhouses of 1831. One reads in his essay that:

The strongest evidence is everywhere afforded that in constructing and furnishing schoolhouses we too often consult our own convenience, rather than the comfort, welfare, or accommodation of our children.

Having apparently made a rather extensive survey of schoolhouses, Alcott writes that:

... The many dark, crowded, ill-looking, and sometimes disorderly and filthy huts to be found in the country, called or rather miscalled schoolhouses, seem to have been provided as a kind of necessary evil, rather than as places of voluntary and cheerful resort for the offspring of the proprietors. In conformity with these views, we are told by a recent writer on this subject that of forty schoolhouses with which he is acquainted in a single county "three fourths," as he judges, are "located without regard to the comfort, health, and happiness of the children. They stand in gloomy, unhealthy places, without a feature of beauty in the scenery around them."

Reading further in this essay, one finds:

Few, indeed, of the numerous schoolhouses in this country are well lighted. Fewer still are painted, even on the outside. Playgrounds, for common schools, are scarcely known. Hence the pupils are obliged to play in the road, exposed to every attendant danger, both physical and moral.

Just one hundred years after the publication of Alcott's essay in the *Proceedings of the American Institute of Instruction* there was incorporated in the reports issued from Mr. Hoover's White House Conference on Child Health and Protection a comprehen-

sive section on "The School Plant, Its Construction, Equipment, Maintenance, and Sanitation." This school-plant report also contains many excerpts from recent surveys of school-building conditions so that here one can secure an idea of the advance which one hundred years have produced in school-building conditions. Such excerpts as the following from city surveys made in various parts of the country may leave the idea that Alcott's ideals had not made very significant headway over the lapse of years.

The typical school site in \_\_\_\_\_ is a piece of ground, triangular in form, with an area of less than half an acre in the angle of the crossroads on a piece of ground ordinarily not considered suitable for cultivation and not infrequently so low as to make it difficult or impossible of proper drainage. In a great many cases, this little plot of ground is either in a densely wooded section or on the edge of a forest or swamp.

The immediate environment has received very little attention. Such buildings as the Lincoln, Washington, and Jefferson are located near the dirt, smoke, and noise of industrial property and are also being constantly disturbed by the confusion of noise coming from industrial plants and from heavy traffic.

Many of the buildings are set flush with the street. Others are only a few feet away from the sidewalk. Many are surrounded by apartment houses and factories. Very few lawns are in evidence. . . . It is evident from observation of the existing school sites that almost no attention has been paid, not only to the adequate size and form of the site, but also to the desirability of the environment. Children should never be required to attend school in the shadow of the State penitentiary, as is done in one case. One school is situated in the vicinity of a dilapidated structure in the last stages of decay, fenced in by high board fences, and creating a most unwholesome environment. This building should have been condemned by the city health authorities or by the fire department long before.

The White House Conference report on the school plant also presents the other side of the picture. It summarizes the school-housing standards pertinent to the health and welfare of school children and includes many illustrations of a very definite advance made in schoolhouse location and school-

building planning. The one hundred and more years of development of school-building standards have resulted in expanding in a most widespread manner the knowledge of what constitutes a good school building and what may be considered to be undesirable housing for children. In many parts of our country, boards of education are thinking about their school plants and planning their school buildings in terms of the highest ideals, and are endeavoring to provide housing conditions for all sections of their communities which are in keeping with the best standards which educational thinking has proposed.

These highest ideals to which reference has been made are frequently ideals concerned with safety, sanitation, ventilation, lighting, and ease of travel throughout the school building itself. There is need for the consideration of other ideals which have not been presented emphatically enough in school-building standards or in school-building literature. These ideals are concerned with the livableness of the school building, its true function in the society which it serves and its very symbolization of the aims and purposes which have been set up for that society.

How can school buildings become efficient laboratories for coördinating community activities? First of all, probably, by being given a recognized place in city planning. Such recognition should be in terms of the community service which might be rendered the adult as well as the junior population. City planning on a rationalized basis has become more and more accepted as a desirable function of society as the years have passed since 1900. Today, city planning has been recognized as a necessary procedure in at least 75 per cent of our growing cities. It is interesting to note that the literature of city planning previous to 1920 scarcely carried mention of planning school buildings or of public education as a community project. Since that time city planners have given somewhat more attention to the position of public edu-

cation in the total scheme of community planning. City planners will do well to re-analyze the service which the schoolhouse may be expected to render the community. The past aloofness of the educational program from the real life of the community may be contrasted with the fuller participation in community affairs reflected in today's school-building activities.

The school building should be a constant reflector of the achievements of the community which it serves. Here should be found the community's gallery of men and women who have contributed to human welfare. Here should be gathered the historical evidences of the community's development. In the school's museum should be found the contributions which the school has made to the advancement of society. The bulletin and display boards of the school should make possible constant insight into the community's problems and should propose solutions. Mysteries of government should unfold themselves here. Hidden channels through which tax monies have been accustomed to pass should be displayed in the light of day. The truth, the realities, and not the theories only of government should become the subject matter of child as well as adult courses. City planning must thus recognize the school as the citadel of a new alliance between government and the people's welfare. The school building's architecture, its location, and its planning, without waste of space or money, should in themselves present a basis for improved teaching of government and civic responsibility.

In city planning today, the school building too often is an incidental project rather than the focus of residential, recreational, and cultural development. Just as boards of education one hundred years ago placed school buildings on swampy lands or upon sites unfit for any other human activity, so today boards of education still tend to place school buildings alongside of noisy elevated railroads, or upon limited sites in congested business or commercial areas, or hide such

buildings away in neglected sections where the importance of education is minimized or ignored in the main. If school buildings are to serve as efficient laboratories for community affairs, it is necessary for city planners, boards of education, and responsible school executives to set up new ideals or standards for the location and environment of schoolhouses, as well as for the character of their contents. Our society must be grateful to those members of these groups who have already not only accepted these ideals but have put them into practice, as is evidenced by the better schoolhouses of our country and the better environments in which they have been placed.

The need for reemphasizing the place which the schoolhouse should occupy in city planning becomes all the more apparent when the people of a nation are in distress. The reasons for such distress ought to be brought to light. If inefficient government, unnecessary taxation, or unwise expenditures are at fault, the schoolhouses of every community should provide the space and be the agency which makes possible public discussion and correction of the faults. If high tariffs, banking mismanagement and fraud, or an unfair distribution of profits are the causes, the clearing houses for adult discussion and the adoption of a corrective program should be the school buildings of our communities. In a form of society like ours, in which knowledge of the faults of that society on the part of the individual is essential to the maintenance of the society, there should be provided within our communities the agencies for the understanding and correction of our common difficulties. The school buildings should become these agencies and they should be given the environmental setting which is in keeping with the service which they may be expected to render. The location of school buildings can no longer be ignored in city planning. The selection of school-building sites should be in terms of the dignity of public education, the needs which the school building will serve in

the social, cultural, and recreational fields, and the respect which the community should accord that agency upon which the future will place its greatest reliance.

My subtopic is *The Development of School Buildings with Special Reference to the Teaching of the Social Subjects*. It is clear to me that in such teaching the placement, character, and contents of the school building play a vital rôle. Four walls and a roof more or less sidetracked in city planning, and with cold and barren interiors, do not constitute the proper environment for the teaching of any phase of social subjects. Those who locate and plan such schoolhouses have ideas about public education which are not a whit in advance of those held by the builders of the dreary one-room schools of one hundred years ago. Public education has assumed no new significance in their minds. They do not conceive of common education in its broadest sense with its need for economic and social appreciations and its reliance upon strength of character to prevent the action, in case of a crisis, which destroys our society. They do not realize that confidence in our society can only be created through education which rises above the mere mechanisms of the *three R's* and furnishes an insight into the "whys" and "wherefores" of human activities. Not only should schoolhouses not be cold and barren and isolated, but they *should be the throbbing life centers of our communities* themselves. When the activities of our government, the reproduction of our commercial life, and the opportunities for human understandings furnish the atmosphere for the school building itself, then will school buildings serve their real purposes most adequately.

From my visitation of school buildings, certain types of facilities stand out foremost in my mind. The Spanish classroom in a western city which teacher and students had transformed into the living room of a Spanish home appealed because teacher and students were clearly enjoying the charm of a

different culture and the joys of a new literature. A school in Italy in which the farm at its best, with all of its agencies for earning an adequate living, was reproduced for educational and inspirational purposes certainly represented the highest form of efficiency in school laboratories. A school corridor in Germany, where birds under reasonable limitations fly about and sing, where the aquaria are of a size and character to provide for real sections of the sea, and where the corridor wall decorations are constant teachers of the environmental geography, furnish an example of a new ideal in adjusting the physical plant to the needs of the educational program. Four blackboard or bulletin-lined walls of the ordinary classroom contribute a minimum to real appreciations in the social subjects unless they are supplemented through the physical agencies that abound for bringing realism into subject matter and for establishing true appreciations through pupil creating and contacting.

It may be expected that schoolhouses will materially change their character within the next few years. It will require courage, imagination, and confidence in the changing nature of the educational program to bring this about. The old form of education which placed its chief reliance upon the printed word will be only a part of the future education which boys and girls must get. It is obviously impossible to take boys and girls to the laboratories of the world, the shipyards, the factories, the museums, and the commercial marts of other countries. Wherever children can reconstruct for themselves the history, the government, the commerce, or the environment of other peoples, the school building should provide the space and the opportunity. Wherever the printed word and the teacher's experience limit world concepts from which our children might profit, the mechanical educative agencies which are available to our society should be utilized. No matter how remote a community or a school building may be from the throbbing centers of commercial and industrial life, the

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radio, the talking picture, and the television machine should overcome the obstacles of time, space, and magnitude and bring the possibility of up-to-dateness into the education of both child and adult. Actually seeing what goes on in the world, and actually hearing the voice of the world, must certainly make a vast difference in the ability of future citizens to cope with the problems of our society. The remoteness of our past education must give way to the realism of a new education in which boys and girls associate with the world's leaders, walk with the world's workers through the factories of the world, and sit in the world's councils with those who are debating the problems of human society. There must exist within the schoolhouse the possibility that children will live that life of reality.

It is absurd to think of utilizing school buildings in the future as little as they have been utilized in the past. Most schoolhouses will not wear out any more rapidly if they are used fifteen hours of the day than if they are used merely five hours. Unfortunately, many adults in the past have had little opportunity for education beyond that which they secured in the eighth grade or as they passed through the high school. In New York City there are thousands of mothers who have had a most limited educational opportunity since children first came into their homes, and thousands of fathers whose main educational support for their struggle in the present-day crisis is the limited education they secured fifteen or twenty years ago. The school building in which widened opportunities for education are provided to children should certainly make available such opportunities for adults. The only safeguards of our society are broader appreciations, more complete understandings, and the manly acceptance of society's responsibilities on the part of all members. Hoarders who can be taught that hoarding is not the solution of their problems, creators of public opinion who can force improvement in bank management, and analysts of governmental

expenditures who in a broad sense can force better buying with public funds should meet on common ground in the adult classes of our society. Out of the study of past leaderships, new ideals of leadership should be created. Out of the achievements of other peoples, new successes for our own people should be indicated. Out of the human struggles of the ages should emanate a more sympathetic and more coöperative understanding and a greater happiness for our people. The opportunity should be afforded child and adult to evaluate the forces which now play upon their lives. These forces should be analyzed and new appreciations evolved.

As the educational program has developed in the past, it would seem that parcels of subject matter have been handed out to children at early stages of their lives, and even to adults, with the underlying thought that this was all of the subject matter that could be understood. Much of the subject matter has been trivial and inconsequential. It appears that that subject matter which most vitally affects the happiness and even the existence of individuals has presumably been the property of a few. If economic difficulties, governmental problems, and international misunderstandings constitute subject matter which only a few can appreciate and understand, the plight of democracy is a sad one. If, however, democracy will utilize its schoolhouses to the end that clarity and understanding in the fields of our difficulties may be brought to the many, at least the path of democracy will become smoother. Children, as well as adults, are entitled to an education in the essentials of human relations. Their appreciations must have world scope. Since technology has eliminated time and space, education must rise to the new challenge. The schoolhouse of the future must make possible a solution.

This has been a very general treatment of the topic assigned me. If these words will stimulate others to a reconsideration of the character and function of the schoolhouse

with reference to the social subjects, the time will have been well spent. Schoolhouses in open spaces making possible the broadest training of the individual are the objective. These schoolhouses, as they are used from year to year, may well become replicas of the world. Where the realities themselves cannot be reproduced, the mechanisms of our so-

ciety will make them available in mechanical form. From each schoolhouse should radiate paths of activity which invite the student to participation in and consideration of real life activities, and along which the adults travel into the schoolhouse again for reconsideration of basic life concepts and for the reformulation of new community policies.

## Pride

Gerald Raftery

Naja was lovely, quite the little queen,  
And doting teachers in each lower grade  
Had pampered and promoted her, and played  
Her false; her way grew less serene.  
Her charming head was all unfit to glean  
The frowning fields of algebra, arrayed  
With roots and minus signs; the little maid  
Was poorly taught, for all her mind was keen.

It broke her heart, although she kept it hid  
And smiled and strove with things she did not know;  
Few children work as hard as Naja did.  
Her mother came to air some worryings  
And wonder why the child should study so—  
"You know, she's always been the head of things."

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# Opera Nazionale Balilla— An Aspect of Italian Education

P. W. L. Cox

EDITOR'S NOTE: During the academic year 1933-1934 Professor Cox of the School of Education of New York University traveled and studied in Europe, making close contact with several outstanding developments in European secondary education. The article which follows is an outgrowth of this experience. We are very glad to be able to present to our readers a first-hand analysis from the pen of such a highly qualified student of international educational problems.

A. D. W.

IN THE NAME of God and of the Fatherland, I swear to follow the orders of the Duce and to serve with all my energy the cause of the Fascist revolution." Such is the oath taken by the Italian children, the millions who belong to the *Balilla* in one branch or another.

One of the most effective educational instruments that the world has ever known is the Opera Nazionale Balilla, frankly a political instrumentality created and operated to ensure the permanence and success of the Fascist revolution in Italy, with its implications of national unity, imperialism, and a strong, trained, competent people. Militarists and pacifists abroad look at this *Balilla* training with much concern. And this concern is surely justified.

It is true, as Nitti has asserted, that "the *Balilla* is a military organization directed by militia and army officers. Its members wear black shirts, learn to handle a gun, are drilled regularly, and learn the rudiments of military discipline." As they advance into the *Avanguardisti* they learn to handle a machine gun, to drill a squad, and to know the statutes of the Fascist party, and, finally, at eighteen, they may be admitted into the Fascist militia, become "Young Fascists" who alone are eligible at twenty-one for admission to the Fascist party. If they attend the university, they may join the *Centurie Universitarie*, charged with the protection

of the university buildings and espionage among professors and fellow students suspected of opposition to Fascism.

Certainly this is not a program calculated to arouse the enthusiasm of American liberals. Nevertheless, there are so many aspects of the training and of the social program of the *Opera Balilla* that do command whole-hearted support of all humane persons, that it will not do to dismiss it merely as a dangerous organization. Let us set forth briefly its history and major divisions and functions.

After the Revolution in 1922 came the *Reforma Gentile* of 1923 affecting the schools. Gentile was so dissatisfied with the perfunctory way in which physical education was being taught under the direction of schoolmasters whose interest was chiefly intellectualistic that he arbitrarily relieved them of further responsibility for it. To him, a vigorous physical-activity program was important not only for the promotion of physical wholesomeness and hygienic living, but quite as much for the moral and civic training and spiritual expression implicit in group activities. He, therefore, entrusted physical education to a self-governing organization (*Ente autonomo*). It was his intention, thus, greatly to increase in importance the place of physical training, instruction in hygiene, play, competitions, and drill in the lives of youths of all ages.

The experiment was not at first successful. The *Ente* was unable to organize its work efficiently. Many leaders of Fascism and of education, while they approved of the general purpose and act of Gentile, believed that it lacked nation-wide coordination and clear purpose.

They believed that the Revolution had as a fundamental necessity to place at its base

the problem of the training of youths if the revolution were to be more than a momentary flash which would fade away as the generation that had brought it about departed from the field of action. Therefore, the Fascist party acted for the moment as an extragovernmental body, as it is free to do because of its curiously multiple relationship to the organized state, being superior to it, inferior to it, an integral part of it, and an organization that acts freely apart from it. They encouraged the organization of boys, and later of girls, into activity groups to which the general term *Balilla* was applied.

The term *Balilla* has reference to a heroic figure in Italian history—that of a crippled Genoese boy, Gian Battista Perasso, who in 1746 threw the ball which served as the signal for the outbreak of the rebellion of the Genoese against the Austrians. *Balilla* groups had at first formed as an aspect of youthful counterparts of the *fascio* organizations of adults. These groups were now coordinated and increased in number and given a national organization.

Its sponsors succeeded, in 1926, in having a national institution set up to guide the physical and moral education of youth, co-operating with, but distinctly not a part of, the public-school system. This institution took the name *Opera Nazionale Balilla*. At first, its jurisdiction applied only to the boys' institutions. In 1929, however, the organizations of girls were put in its charge.

The major divisions of the organization consist of the *Balilla*—boys from six to fourteen; the *Avanguardisti*—boys from fourteen to eighteen; *Piccole Italiane*—girls from six to fourteen; and *Giovani Italiane*—girls from fourteen to eighteen. One branch of the *Balilla* is the *Marinaretti* who, like the Sea Scouts in America, substitute the activities of the navy, merchant marine, and other sea practices for those of the regular *Balilla*; unlike the American Sea Scouts, however, they are not limited to older boys, but parallel the *Balilla* at all ages. At eighteen, *Avanguardisti* may become either members of the

*Leva Avanguardisti* ("Young Fascists") or of the Cadets, a body of selected young men who have proved their capacity to accept responsibility wisely and competently. From these last, as will be explained later, are recruited the future leaders of Italian youth.

In November 1932, the enrollments in these branches were as follows:

<i>Balilla</i> .....	1,430,403
<i>Marinaretti</i> .....	28,292
<i>Piccole Italiane</i> .....	1,186,569
<i>Avanguardisti</i> .....	439,871
<i>Giovani Italiane</i> .....	119,769
<i>Cadets</i> .....	1,196
<i>Leva Avanguardisti</i> .....	101,027
Total .....	3,207,127

In January 1934, it is said that ninety per cent of the boys and girls of Italy of the ages six to fourteen are members of the appropriate organizations. Membership is voluntary; parents' approval must be received before the candidate is accepted. Nevertheless, social pressure is very great for the children to join. Costumes, honors, responsibilities, and public opinion all affect the desires of the young children to "join up."

The functions comprehended by the *Opera Balilla* are vast. They include the entire program of educational activities—"political and religious, physical and moral, hygienic and athletic, *assistenziale* (feeding, clothing, scholarships, etc.) and cultural." Accepted originally by Gentile and by the Catholic church, without enthusiasm, as potentially valuable supplements to the school and to the church, it is largely replacing them both because of its more vigorous and purposeful program and its freedom from hampering traditions.

It is supported in part by national grants included in the budgets of the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Corporations (Guilds), and the Ministry of Education. Largely, however, it depends on voluntary

<sup>1</sup> A later figure gives "over three and a half million" members and over one hundred thousand directors and instructors. *Opera Balilla*, Anno XI—*Opera Nazionale Balilla*, 1933.

gifts from wealthy individuals and corporations who thereby attain honorary membership in the *O.N.B.* (*Opera Nazionale Balilla*) with ranks according to the size of their gifts. From its headquarters in the Ministry of Education at Rome it stimulates enthusiasm, maintains efficient cooperation, and very competently directs the work of county (provincial) committees and municipal committees, membership in which gives satisfying expression to great numbers of Fascist party members.

During the formal schoolday the *Balilla* limits its direct control to the physical training and to the lunchrooms where children of poor parents are fed free or at less than cost. After school, Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays, however, the *Balilla* activity is continuous, varied, and intensive. These extra-school activities are chiefly athletic and cultural; the military and religious aspects are distinctly subordinate—indeed, a very high official of the *O.N.B.* indicated that they were largely concessions to powerful groups whose support it was essential to hold. "We do not consider them very important," he said, "but we believe that they are necessary; they complete the training for duty and service of the citizen of a Catholic country. Anyway, we could not give them up if we would; but we would not do so if we could."

Every summer large numbers of *Avanguardisti* and older *Marinaretti* are helped to travel in foreign countries. Last summer trips were planned for Hungary, visiting in Austria on the way; for Germany, Athens, Constantinople, and Rhodesia. Fraternization with the boys of similar organizations in the countries visited is arranged for and encouraged, with "jamborees" to give color to the meetings. The expenses of the boys vary from \$45.00 to \$55.00, furnished either individually or by the community councils.

Even more significant than these foreign trips, however, is the annual encampment at Rome, where *Avanguardisti* from all over Italy are accepted for one week at Camp Dux. Here they engage in military and ath-

letic activities and competitions and visit the monuments and other places of interest of the Eternal City—the Imperial City of Destiny. Here they meet *Il Duce*, dignified, friendly, but a bit aloof. They pledge to him and to *Fascismo* and to Italy their fealty. Here they are led to exalt the spirit of cooperation, subordination of self to the group, athletic and military competence not for vainglory but for the welfare of Italy—calling for all-around abilities rather than specialized training. All is carefully staged; enthusiasm runs high; and atmosphere of religious devotion to the revolution prevails.

Hierarchy and discipline fired by zeal for Italian unity and dominance under the leadership of *Il Duce* form the basis of the whole Fascist movement. It follows that the *Balilla* should plan its entire program so as to reinforce this basic principle. Each branch of the *Balilla* is organized in accordance with the classic *ternary* formation of the armies of ancient Rome. The *Squadra* consists of eleven individuals led by a *Capo Squadra*; three *squadre* compose one *manipolo*; three *manipoli* one *centuria*; three *centurie* one *coorte*; and three *coorti* one *legione*; each order under the direction of its appropriate *capo* who has won his distinction both by excellence in activities, passing of examinations for the attainment of merits, the study of Fascist politics, and the ability to accept responsibility and exercise authority competently.

From these *capi* of varying ranks are recruited the cadets, young men of eighteen years, who have been self-elected through at least four years of service in the *Avanguardisti*. The cadets continue the study of Fascist politics; they serve as assistants to the instructors of *Balilla* and *Avanguardisti* *manipoli* and *centurie*, and they still carry on their own military, athletic, and civic training. At twenty-one, when they are formally accepted into the Fascist party, they may take rigid intellectual, political, athletic, and physical examinations, and if successful may be admitted to the Fascist Academy sit-

uated at Rome in conjunction with the Forum Mussolini. Here they are trained at government expense for three years, after which, if they survive the competition, they are eligible for and generally assured appointments as physical-education instructors in the public schools.

They are expected to be the future functional leaders of Italian youth and their parents, and to affect the habits of life and patterns of thought of the Italian people permanently for the safety and imperial welfare of the nation, and especially for the acceptance of hierarchy and discipline in accordance with the basic principle of *Fascismo*.

The Forum Mussolini, to which reference has been made in the preceding paragraphs, must be described. Situated on the right bank of the Tiber River is an area of approximately two hundred acres set aside for great stadia, buildings, rugby and basketball areas, tennis courts, stables and bridle paths, shooting grounds, an open-air theater, and landscaped walks. Here is situated the Academy with classrooms, gymnasiums, and baths of all sorts. There are accommodations for four hundred students, men and women. Here are an infirmary, anatomical museum, and provisions for teaching as much of anatomy and physiology as is required of instructors who will be held responsible for sanitary and health conditions in the communities served by their schools and their *Balilla* organizations.

Here, too, is the famous Mussolini Monolith, 18 meters high and weighing 300 tons, a solid block of marble brought from the quarries of Carrara over fortified roads and bridges and floated down the Tiber to its present location. Here is the great Cypress

Stadium, a natural depression seating over 100,000 spectators and giving room within the enclosed area for entire regiments to maneuver. The smaller stadium, the Forum Mussolini, seats 20,000 spectators on its marble tiers; it is surrounded by some 60 magnificent statues of athletes, gifts of various cities or provinces of Italy.

The great athletic center is a symbol as well as a practical instrument. The Italian people—heterogeneous, nonathletic, non-militaristic, unhygienic, nonnationalistic, individualistic, critical, uncoöperative except for selfish or small group interests—are to be recreated under the leadership, if necessary under the whiplash, of *Fascismo*. They are to become homogeneous, athletic, militaristic, hygienic, nationalistic, disciplined, coöperative under hierarchic control. And the program of education, training enthusiasts, and social pressure is focused at this spot, and from here is to radiate to all Italians, both at home and abroad. All of this program is in the hands of the *Opera Nazionale Balilla*.

Potentially it may serve as a model and a guide for "elites" in other countries. Or it may plunge Italy into devastating war. Potentially it may gradually subordinate the supernationalistic elements of its military program and ideology, and lend its more humane and socially intelligent program to youth movements in forms of society very unlike that in which it has grown up.

At any rate, one takes leave of the *Balilla* with its clear-sighted leader, its energy, and its definiteness with a wish that some significant body of leaders in America were capable of envisioning and of winning support for an analogous program suited to our own social democracy.

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# Civic Motivation in an Interdependent World

Daniel A. Prescott

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Through the courtesy of the Harvard Teachers Record and Professor Daniel A. Prescott of Rutgers University we are enabled to reprint for our readers the following article which originally appeared in the Harvard Teachers Record.*  
A. D. W.

THE DEPRESSION, which began over three years ago, from which there are now promising evidences of recovery, was international in origin and no nation escaped from its effects. It brought home to us the fact that the nations have become so interdependent that what happens in one or more countries affects the others. Since many of the troubles in various nations today are mainly international in origin and scope, and since the interdependence of nations has become so complete that isolation is no longer possible or desirable, it is somewhat difficult to account for the move of intense nationalism that has been sweeping the world." So writes Norman H. Davis in a recent number of *International Conciliation*, published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

The questions that I wish to raise in this paper grow directly out of the implications of the facts which Mr. Davis sets forth so clearly. What kind of loyalties should the citizens of any nation hold in the light of their dependence upon other nations? Is the militant nationalism, now so prominent in Europe and in the Orient, a reasonable civic motivation for our time? Must we choose—or have we a choice—as to whether we shall cast our lot with other nations or travel our own independent road? Shall we endeavor to inculcate into our school children idealistic conceptions of internationalism? Or shall we teach them to prepare themselves for any eventuality in the form of a complete break-

down of international coöperation? Shall we awaken our young people primarily to a sense of our national needs and teach them to use whatever means may be necessary to satisfy these needs without regard to the effects on other nations? Is the present international anarchy the ultimate condition of the world society? If the present anarchy is not desirable in view of the facts of international interdependence, by what means may the world's population be motivated to establish an ordered international society? Can organized education play a part in building up the needed new loyalties?

I raise these questions in order to deal frankly and honestly with the world as it is. If we give our education over to an impracticable idealism that gets nowhere, then our efforts will be futile. If we give our education over to an intense and unreasoning nationalism that ignores the facts of interdependence in the stubborn attempt to get what it wishes for itself at anybody's expense, then we shall help get the world into still more trouble. What needs to be done in the matter of motivating our youth? What is it practicable to do in our present situation?

*First*, it would seem reasonable to inquire *just how extensive and critical is our dependence upon other nations*. One finds conflicting reports—one group says that the United States can operate as an entirely self-contained economic unit; another maintains that this is impossible even though we were willing to lower our standard of living measurably. I looked about a bit for the facts, but one has to go to many special sources to get any comprehensive view. In so vital an issue school people have not thought it necessary to tap all available sources of information and to prepare serious studies

that would make the facts readily accessible. This in itself demonstrates an initial need. Still, I did find out a few alleged facts which seem to show conditions generally to be about as described in the examples presented in the next paragraph.

We are proud of our resources for manufacturing steel and of our great development in the use of steel. We are possessed of enormous deposits of iron, coal, and limestone, the basic materials from which steel is made. But the special qualities upon which the different kinds of steel depend for their usefulness are secured, not from these basic raw materials, but from the introduction into the steel of very small quantities of other metals or of other elements. In some of these we are lacking. It is said that we must import at least forty commodities in order to produce the varieties of steel that we find essential to construction, machine making, tool making, automobile manufacturing, and the like. It is said that we employ something like 612,000 tons a year of manganese alone in normal times, but that we are able to produce only about 60,000 tons a year of it—about one tenth. I understand that the United States uses about 30,000 tons of nickel a year and must procure all of it from Canada. Beyond steel other examples are easy to find. I am told that we consume half the output of tin for the whole world but that we produce no tin whatsoever. Our mills manufacture about \$700,000,000 worth of silk a year but we do not produce a pound ourselves. I do know that we could use rayon instead, if we had to, just as we are no longer irremediably dependent upon Chile for nitrates since we can fix the nitrogen of the air. But I am also aware that the search for a rubber substitute has not yet been successful except at prohibitive prices. It may be all right to have faith that science will meet our needs as fast as they arise—but most people pay considerable sums for insurance against contingencies that are much more remote than the likelihood that science will be able, for example, to find new ingredients to go into steel in place

of all the metals which we do not possess. I say that, at least, our school people should make a reasonably close study of the genuineness and critical nature of our international dependence before they give themselves over unreservedly to teaching a narrow nationalism. Notice, too, that I have said nothing about the necessity for export trade to the welfare of our people. We produce many commodities in great surplus and, lacking export markets, would have to extend the "leisure time" of numbers of our people significantly. Because of the facts presented here and because they are typical of what we would find in other fields, it *seems genuinely insane for us*—or any industrial nation—to think in terms of national isolation, or national self-sufficiency. Yet this is being done very widely.

Mr. Norman Davis, in the article previously quoted, went on to give his opinion of the reason for this insanity. He said: "Fear is, of course, the chief cause of extreme nationalism and the chief obstacle to a solution of some of the difficulties that now confront us. *All nations are seeking security, not only of life but of livelihood.* As a result there is a growing tendency on the part of each country to divorce itself from external ties and influences and to seek its salvation independently of its neighbors, if not, indeed, at their expense." Here then is an amazing paradox—an inescapable interdependence exists among the nations and yet they are seeking salvation by independent, mutually detrimental, nationalistic means. Fear has supplanted intelligence—or are the reasons less simple and the cure, therefore, more difficult than the mere reëducation of the emotions? I feel that the situation is more complex than a world overrun with fear and hatred alone would be. I doubt very much that education can be the panacea. But, at least, education must devote itself most earnestly to understanding the reality that is about us before it yields its influence to the control either of a narrow nationalism or a vague impractical internationalism.

Psychology came to us through metaphysics and philosophy. Most of us have scarcely got over thinking of human behavior in terms of instincts and psychically imposed desires. We consider people to be innately acquisitive, pugnacious, and self-assertive—not for any purpose but merely because it is their nature so to be. But modern psychology is forcing us rapidly from this loose explanation. We are beginning to understand that most human behavior is *purposive*, that it springs, not from instinct or vague psychic urging, but from the tissue needs of the body itself. If we would understand people, then, we must find out how experience has taught them to meet their own physical needs and how well those needs are being met under the conditions of their life at present. The urgency of maintaining the biochemical equilibrium of his body is something which no man can escape. The insistence with which inadequate provision of the chemical necessities forces itself into consciousness as a vital pressing problem needs only to be mentioned to be understood. Add to this elemental fact an understanding of the more complex chemistry of the blood stream with its minute but potent proportions of hormones from various endocrine glands and one sees that tissue needs can be stated in chemical terms that are simply not to be dodged. Human feelings grow out of blood chemistry, human motives and desires spring from changes in this blood stream translated by experience into human institutions and customs. Translated into international experience during the past decade what does this mean?

Let us take the spectacular case of Germany. More or less disillusioned by the disastrous results of the "blood and iron" philosophy, the German people wrote one of the most idealistic of all national constitutions at Weimar. They took on a republican form of government, effected wide reforms in education, and thought that they saw a new day in democratic equality of opportunity based upon the excellent intelligence of

the people and the high literacy prevailing. But what happened? Before the humiliation of Versailles could heal they were faced with continued foreign domination on the economic and material side of life. Came in quick succession the horrible inflation days, the collection of huge reparations in goods, the erection of discriminatory tariff walls by both new and old states. What was left as the basis for maintaining their own tissue needs? Little remained beyond trade with themselves; and their own buying resources were almost destroyed by the war and the inflation. Unemployment increased, wages and salaries dropped, men were forced to humble themselves to the point of loss of self-respect to work at anything that would earn a mark. The country itself was humiliated by exclusion from the League of Nations and from forced admission of war guilt. We are dealing here with the chemistry of men's blood—men cannot starve and suffer and be humiliated ceaselessly and hold to ideals—something has to be done to meet tissue needs. Unable to maintain essential conditions under the idealistic new government the country swung further to the right and a liberal diplomacy emerged. Locarno, Stresemann, and the German entry into the League were taken to presage a new day. Still material conditions did not change and with the continued denial of tissue needs desperation and despair increased. Hitler appeared at first as a comic-opera buffoon, but Mussolini seemed to have accomplished something for Italy. Gradually people came to feel, "Why not? Any change that offers a more energetic attention to our needs is better than the present enduring impasse." So Hitler became Chancellor and the world began to talk of war, re-armament, and balances of power. Now we await the future with fear and trembling.

If one chose to look at England, or Poland, or even the United States, one could find a similar explanation for events. Strong nationalism is trying to solve problems that are international in genesis and scope, and in-

tellectually all of us recognize that it is futile. More than fear underlies the return to nationalism, however. No authoritative international agency capable of enforcing its policies exists. The World Court and the League of Nations must depend upon the willingness of various nations to coöperate. But it is hardly common sense to expect peoples to coöperate to their own detriment—this could be done under an economy of plenty but not when millions of stomachs are empty, when factories are closed because markets have been shut off by tariffs, or when the capacity to buy is almost extinguished by the necessity for paying interest and principal on debts. The international agencies that exist are political, the major international problems are economic, and there is no authority capable of enforcing new economic policies in the world.

National governments, however, can set up and enforce new economic arrangements within their own boundaries. Since the tissue needs of the populations demanded new material arrangements, the demand grew insistently everywhere for a departure from *laissez faire* and the introduction of purposed arrangements for meeting those basic needs of the people—so we have Fascism, communism, the New Deal. Here is the explanation which I find for the new selfish nationalism. The need for food, clothing, shelter, and work had to be met. No international machinery was capable of doing anything about it; therefore, the national machinery was seized and put to work. The idealistic internationalism following the war was correct in principle but it lacked control over the material resources which simply had to be placed at the disposal of the various populations. Naturally it went into eclipse as country after country renounced it in favor of an energetic attempt to find means of meeting the tissue necessities of their peoples. Of course, fear is a tremendously complicating factor, for once a nation sets out to make its own way, heedless of the effects on others, tensions are developed. When many nations

do it, dangerous rivalries, the inevitable balances of power, unfair preferential treaties and the like follow rapidly. So here we are today. We are dependent on each other but we have no machinery to turn that interdependence into mutual advantage. We shall go through difficult times.

What is the function of education in a period like this? Certainly, single-handed, it cannot bring in a new day, and educators may just as well stop making over-ambitious promises even to each other. But certain services can be rendered, and it is axiomatic that these should be rendered even if they run counter to much powerful influence within the country itself.

The first and simplest service that schools can render is to keep down as much as possible the development of emotionalized attitudes of fear, distrust, and hatred towards other countries. This is not impossible if schools are permitted to study realistically the conditions of life in other countries. To know how the German people have struggled and suffered during the past fifteen years is to understand and to sympathize with them, however much one may deplore many of the policies of the Nazis that have grown out of these sufferings. To know the poverty and humiliation of millions of British workmen and the enormous burden of taxation generally is to understand and to sympathize with the British efforts to undermine our markets in Canada with the "Buy British" slogan. It is to rejoice with misgivings at the press report which I saw yesterday to the effect that the devaluation of the dollar has reopened huge markets for some of our goods in South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia, at the cost of Great Britain. Such a report means poverty for British families, cold and crusts and begging for British children. Our children should know this, for it is only out of such knowledge that there will come a genuine and widespread willingness to set up the necessary international machinery of control over the economic life of the world.

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Reply will at once be made—but the British first devalued their pound and got some of our markets so that relief of their unemployed was only by the creation of unemployed here. It is true. Then schools must consider our own tissue needs. When they have studied in detail the extent and genuineness of the interdependence among nations they must then be asked: "It is a question of our needs or theirs? Is there no way in which we may serve each other to mutual advantage?" Here I have come to the second contribution that schools can make. If the first—the lessening of unpleasant emotions towards others—is important, the second is critical. While the appearance of a menace to our own tissue needs is offered by the meeting of those needs in the peoples of other countries, antagonisms must continue to exist. But I am confident that a realistic and penetrating study of interdependence will show that with proper international planning all nations can have more and all be more secure—provided greed and false dealing can be eliminated. The creation of an awareness of this fact should be a second aim of education as it deals with international matters.

Pupils will still shrug their shoulders, however. "People are still greedy, they continue to cheat the ignorant and mislead the gullible," they will say. To be sure; yet this is being reduced steadily in most of the well-organized countries of the world. A study of the agencies and methods employed to establish honesty within the various nations would then have a background in the minds

of pupils, a point of reference to which it could be tied. I should be greatly surprised, too, if the young people did not find here implications for the international situation. They would see quickly the necessity for a well-codified body of international law, for adequate world courts, for the power to enforce international law to be placed in the hands of some executive agency. Very rapidly the children would "debunk" the pleasant idealists who argue in the same breath for "internationalism" and for the sovereignty of their own country. These are among the most dangerous advocates of the present international anarchy, because their good intentions prevent a realistic attack on the problem.

In summary, then, this paper presents the thesis that schools must be very careful of the type of civic motivation that they set up in their pupils in this interdependent world of ours. To be stampeded by movements bred of desperation into chauvinism or anarchistic nationalism is to generate war. To breathe a beneficent internationalism in a world that has not the machinery to put this worthy ideal into effect is to waste one's breath and leave youth disillusioned. Instead of these, the schools must demand the right to deal with realities. They must bring children to the place where they know their world in terms of the tissue needs of people everywhere. Teachers must go along with the children to whatever conclusions are inevitable as to the nature of the international machinery that must be set up to guarantee an abundant life to all peoples.

# Education for Public Service

Leonard D. White

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Leonard D. White, of the United States Civil Service Commission, offers our readers the following description of the problems involved in education for various forms of public service. We feel that his views will be of great interest to high-school teachers and administrators whose problems, though different, have much in common with those that Mr. White discusses. A. D. W.*

THERE HAS BEEN considerable discussion in recent years of a proposal, which was most recently put forward a month ago at the annual convention of the Civil Service Assembly, in favor of a national civil-service academy for civilian employees along the lines of West Point and Annapolis.

The idea is an attractive one from some points of view, but its advocates overlook certain established features of the civil service. West Point and Annapolis train young men exclusively for the officer class of the Army and Navy, respectively. A sharp and substantially permanent line is drawn between the officer class and the enlisted men. No such line exists in the civil service and I am sure we agree that such a distinction between higher and lower grades of the service would not be in accordance with the American way of life.

A further distinction lies in the fact that the work of an Army or Navy officer is highly professionalized and relatively uniform in character. I do not mean, of course, that the Army or Navy officer has merely the task of moving men or ships here and there, but I do suggest that the range and variety of work is less in the military services than in the broad scope of civil administration. It is feasible to educate young men for the military profession in a military academy; but how can we educate in a single institution for such diverse civilian activities as managing the public domain, collecting income taxes, safeguarding the public health, conducting our foreign relations, operating the post of-

fice, making loans to farmers, and trying to get some order in our disordered economic system?

The diversity of subject matter and, consequently, the necessary diversity of educational background make it extremely difficult to visualize a civil-service West Point. It is of some interest to note that no such institution exists anywhere in the world so far as my knowledge of the public services goes. There is, however, a kernel of wisdom in the thought that some special training needs to be given for staff officers, who have as definite a place in civil administration as they have in military or naval affairs. On another occasion I developed my thought with reference to the preparation of these staff officers. Here may I say merely that in my judgment they have to be trained inside the service on the basis of actual administrative work and experience rather than by catching them fresh from the secondary schools and giving them a theoretical course of training. For these and other reasons, I doubt whether we shall be well advised to advocate a civil-service academy. We must continue to depend for the basic training of our future civil servants on the established educational system of the country. One of the basic problems involved in the preparation of persons for the public service is whether it should be general in nature or specific, pointing to some recognized position or group of positions where special knowledge or skill is desired.

Involved in this question is the consideration whether the only useful education is actual experience on the job. A few weeks ago I gave an address before the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials in Boston where I recommended the advantage of a university education for certain types of public work. My view was challenged by my friend, Mr. John H. Hall, Labor Commissioner of the State of Virginia,

who, speaking from the background of the trade-union world, expressed the conviction that actual experience on the job was the only way in which to prepare oneself successfully for its performance.

A third issue inquires whether education for the public service can be sufficiently cared for in the secondary schools or whether the institutions of higher learning have to carry part of the responsibility, and, if so, how much.

In our search for answers to these questions, we may secure some interesting insights from the underlying philosophy of education for the public service in Great Britain, as it was worked out eighty years ago by the historian Macaulay. From that day to this the closest relations have existed between the publicly supported school system and the universities on the one hand, and the civil service on the other. Men and women are taken into the British civil service directly from the schools, for the lowest grade of positions at the age of 16, for the middle grade at the age of 18-19, and for the highest grades at the age of 22-23. These years correspond to definite stages in the educational program.

Have the British modified their system of education to meet the specialized needs of preparation for the public service, or has the public service set its examinations to fit the curriculum of the educational system? Either adjustment might have been made; but, with wise foresight, the British have conserved their educational system for broad educational objectives. The civil-service examinations have been consciously adjusted to the educational system, and for the great majority of positions, except the scientific and professional, require only the elements of a general education, secondary or university as the case may be.

I have not time to develop many interesting implications of this philosophy of education and civil service, but return to our own American situation. We do not, and under present circumstances cannot, draw our pub-

lic service directly from the schools as is generally done abroad. Our examination procedure allows competition in many cases up to the age of fifty or fifty-three, and often gives weight to experience, which, of course, is not considered in the British system since the young persons have no experience other than scholastic. Public opinion here is not favorable to lower age limits, although we are alone among all the great nations in recruiting for original appointment at these high age limits.

Moreover, our civil-service law requires that the examinations shall be "practical as far as practicable," a requirement which was for many years construed to mean that only questions relating immediately to the work of the position in question were allowable. Our examination procedure consequently became more and more specialized and technical and more and more restricted in character.

I am obliged to refer to this rather technical subject because it bears directly on the underlying dilemma which has always perplexed both educators and civil-service examiners in their consideration of the problem of education for the public service.

The dilemma is this. Educators here as in Great Britain have been unwilling to warp the educational system to meet the needs of civil-service examinations. They have almost universally held the conviction that a broad general education, the purpose of which, in Macaulay's phrase, was to enrich the mind, was in fact the very best preparation for a career in the public service. They have consequently held fast to a curriculum which emphasized the liberal studies—a knowledge of mathematics and the natural sciences, of the humanities, and of history and the social sciences, the elements of which are regularly found in secondary-school curricula as well as in the traditional liberal-arts college.

But civil-service examinations, the open door to the administrative service of the Federal Government and of many State and city governments, have had little, if any-

thing, to do with these elements of a liberal education. A general education had to become specialized—I do not wish to say refined—in particular skills or procedures, such as the technique of filing, the art of stenography, or understanding the mysteries of bookkeeping and auditing.

The result has been that the mentally superior graduate of high school or college, with perhaps the finest cultural education, has found no direct avenue leading him into the public service. He has been forced to acquire specialized skills to compete for the vast majority of public appointments. This he has done by entering commercial or financial life, and there the best of them have remained. Too often the less able have drifted into a specialized examination where years of experience have given them precedence over much better native ability fresh from the schools.

I cannot take time to develop the implications of this dilemma between the convictions of the educators and the examination practices of the civil-service commissions, Federal, State, and local. Happily the dilemma is in way of solution.

Out of the psychological laboratories of the universities and the testing techniques of the schools has come the concept of general intelligence or native ability, unrelated to the acquisition of special skills or aptitudes or a particular fund of knowledge.

Civil-service commissions are using this test of general intelligence more and more frequently as the chief criterion of selection. It is put in the familiar form of the true-false, completion, short-answer question and does not require the specialized knowledge of the task which the older "practical" examinations set up.

By way of illustration, the United States Civil Service Commission is now holding a nation-wide examination for junior civil-service examiner, for which a college degree is a prerequisite. The examination has two parts, general intelligence and general information. It does not require the candidates to have spent part of their undergraduate

days in studying statistics or civil-service regulations or the law of public employment. A bright young man or woman who has majored in English or philosophy or mathematics has as good a chance of success as his friend whose interests have been in psychology and statistics and test construction.

I refer to this case because it symbolizes the solution of the dilemma of education for the public service. Within gradually widening limits educators can advise their students to prepare for the public service by choosing a broad general educational course in lieu of a business course, or in lieu of some very highly specialized preparation not far removed from that provided by the so-called "cram" schools which train specifically for the civil-service examinations.

In order to avoid any misunderstanding, let me say that for the technical, professional, and scientific positions, such as engineer, chemist, patent examiner, public-health specialist, airplane pilot, and hundreds of similar posts, the proper specialized knowledge and training must be demonstrated by candidates for appointment.

There remains, however, a broad range of clerical, executive, supervisory, and administrative posts for which the prime essentials are a good mind, a good personality, and a willingness to accept plenty of hard work and responsibility. These positions are of utmost importance in the smooth working of government, and I have no hesitation in saying that, in my opinion, we should continue the practice of examination on the basis of a sound general education such as is provided by the recognized secondary schools and colleges of the country today. I am convinced that a broad general education for young recruits to the civil service is not only sound educational policy, but sound recruiting policy as well.

#### RELATIVE VALUES OF EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

May we now turn to a brief consideration of the relative values of education and experience. We may agree at once, I have no

doubt, that *mere education* without experience is wholly inadequate for any but the junior posts. We may agree also that *experience alone* without, let us say, more than a common-school education is not enough for a broad range of official positions. By the experience which comes to most mortals we do not learn how to prevent soil erosion, conquer the fruit-fly pest, forecast the weather, or overcome a depression.

The real problem is, therefore, not experience *or* education, or education against experience, but rather the wise combination of education *and* experience in the light of contemporary governmental problems.

The position which I would like to defend is that, in the formation of the ideal public servant, experience becomes more significant and meaningful as it is based upon and related to a fundamental and extensive education.

The reasons are these:

1. The mere business of operating the Federal Government is now the most extensive, the most complicated and difficult administrative task in the world. The coördination of the hundreds of official agencies, each with the other, the general supervision of their work in the interest of efficiency and economy, and the control of policy present a task the vastness of which cannot be paralleled even by the largest of our industrial giants. The administrative burden is not made more easy by reason of the interest of press and public and politician in the conduct of public affairs.

We need, consequently, men of the very best administrative capacity and insight. They may acquire the essential knowledge of administrative technique by experience alone; they cannot as a rule hope to acquire the essential knowledge of subject matter by experience. It comes only through arduous study of the organized fields of knowledge such as law, economics, public administration, and public finance.

2. Government is now dealing directly and intimately with the personal affairs of its citizens to a degree never before known in

this country. Here are some examples:

a) The Federal Government is giving daily subsistence to the equivalent of over 16,000,000 persons.

b) The Federal Government is insuring the individual bank deposits of over 50,000,000 persons.

c) The Federal Government has loaned credit on over 500,000 pieces of property, saving homes for well over 1,000,000 individuals.

d) The Federal Government is negotiating directly and personally with millions of farmers all over the country, especially those producing the basic commodities.

e) The Federal Government is directly employing over 300,000 young men in C.C.C. camps and over half a million more on public-works projects.

It needs men and women who are able to take a large view of their responsibilities to the end that the contacts of government with its citizens may move as smoothly as possible.

The possibilities of irritation in such intimate contacts are innumerable. You are all familiar with the narrow-gauge official who has been given a small degree of authority and who proceeds to become a public nuisance by exerting his authority in the most offensive manner possible. Such men, and occasionally they are found in higher positions, lack the saving grace of a sense of their own position which perspective would give them. Education supplies perspective.

Without an understanding of the purposes which law seeks to achieve, the administration of the law by illiterate officials becomes a blind concern for the letter and a stupid lack of concern for the spirit. A broad education equips a public employee to interpret the law to those upon whose backs it is enforced, and builds in the community a respect for the law and the official which a literal-minded enforcement may easily destroy.

3. More than this, government now has under consideration a program of economic security, the success or failure of which will turn as much on its successful administration as on the wisdom of its general policy. In his message to Congress on June 18, 1934, President Roosevelt said:

These three great objectives, the security of the home, the security of livelihood, and the security of social insurance, are, it seems to me, a minimum

of the promise that we can offer to the American people.

The experience of foreign countries which have progressed farther along the road in the search for the economic security of their citizens demonstrates beyond a shadow of doubt that an administrative task of extraordinary difficulty is contained in this broad statement of policy. The security of the individual is one of the most complex social problems of the modern world. It ramifies into every phase of production and distribution; it touches every aspect of community life; it trenches deep in ground upon which government in this country has traditionally declined to enter.

It will be folly to attempt to establish governmental structures to assist 120,000,000 individuals in their quest for security without providing the finest administrative skill that the country possesses. Well-established procedures are at hand to guarantee that the administrative personnel of such new agencies will be the best available.

4. More than this, we live in an age of world revolution, although in the relative peace and quiet of this country it is sometimes difficult to appreciate that we are the living witnesses of social upheavals greater by far than those of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic era.

Why has revolution failed to strike home in the Anglo-Saxon countries? Not, certainly, because we are so fundamentally different as a psychological type that revolution is antithetic to the Anglo-Saxon genius. Is it not in part because, especially in Great Britain and its dominions, to a less extent perhaps here, the people have confidence in their government and grant to it a high prestige?

And can we doubt that one element of such prestige and public confidence is the presence in the permanent offices of government of men and women who represent the flower of the highest educational institutions of the country?

For many reasons, therefore, it seems evi-

dent to me that experience alone cannot be safely relied upon to produce the kind of public service which technical requirements now make necessary and which public confidence now makes essential. The administrative service of this country is today a powerful bulwark against internal collapse just as truly as the Army and the Navy are bulwarks against foreign invasion. We need in both instances the best the country can produce. I consequently reach the conclusion that at least for the higher brackets of the administrative service we need men who have had the discipline and the broadening and the perspective which education supplies, as well as men who by force of character and native ability capitalize their experience for official leadership.

#### RELATIVE PLACES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Finally, I turn to discuss the relative places of the secondary schools and the institutions of higher learning in the making of the public service of the future. Both levels of educational institution must play a significant rôle. For the vast numerical majority of official positions, a good high-school education is adequate. The large range of clerical, administrative, and fiscal appointments as a rule require no more than secondary-school training. The post office, with more than a quarter million positions, is properly staffed very largely by men and women with high-school education. The crafts and custodial positions are drawn from this educational level. The inspectional services rest upon a secondary education almost entirely.

In the State and municipal services, also, the large numerical majority of positions are open to young persons who have completed high school. In fact, a rough estimate of the situation suggests that of something like 3,000,000 positions in the public service of the country, Federal, State, and local, at all levels, at least 2,500,000 are at the disposal of high-school graduates.

I do not advocate that the high-school

curriculum be written in terms of specific preparation of young folk for these positions. As I have already indicated I am a partisan of a general cultural education such as the best secondary schools provide, progressively adapted to changing conditions of community life.

I do believe, however, that the attention of the secondary schools and of their students should be drawn to the possibility of public employment in a more systematic way than now is the case. It would certainly be to the advantage of the public service if the top ten per cent of high-school graduates every year could have their attention turned to the possibility of taking civil-service examinations and of entering the public service in some junior capacity. I would like to see the organized teachers consider the possibility of turning some of their best students year by year into the civil service.

#### CAREER IN GOVERNMENT

Before, however, one can advocate any systematic program looking to this end, much more attention needs to be given to the kind of examinations offered by the civil-service commissions of the country for junior clerical and related positions, as well as the prospects of offering these superior young men and women an attractive opportunity to build a useful career for themselves. Students of the public service of this country realize that to establish the conditions of a career will require some other fundamental changes. In point of fact, the conditions necessary for a career are more nearly at hand in the Federal service than they are in the services of most States and cities. Consequently, the place at which we should

strike in order to set up a model which could eventually be adapted to the public service of the States and cities is properly the Federal civil service, or alternatively in some of the larger cities which have stable and progressive governments, such as Milwaukee and Cincinnati.

#### PRESTIGE OF PUBLIC OFFICE

There is another aspect of the whole matter. As I have said earlier in this paper, the stability of government in a democratic country rests very heavily upon the confidence which the great mass of citizens have in their public officials and in the prestige which is attached to public office. There is no doubt that the prestige of municipal government has increased greatly in the last twenty-five years by reason of the rise of the city-manager movement. This movement has had the effect of bringing into the municipal service a body of highly educated and highly trained men who serve the interests of the community with no thought of political or personal gain. If such ideals of public service could properly be laid before the brightest young men and women who graduate from the secondary schools each year, and who will furnish a considerable part of the leadership of the community ten and twenty years hence, I believe that we need not concern ourselves about the future stability of American institutions. Thus we see combining into one channel both the interest of the public service in securing the ablest young people to enter its ranks, and the interest of all believers in the fundamentals of American liberal democratic government who seek to perpetuate the conditions on which tolerance and democracy may continue to exist.

# Vocational and Cultural Objectives

John T. Wheeler

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The point of view expressed in the following article by Professor Wheeler of the University of Georgia is one which should lead many of our readers to think seriously about the possibility of modifying such school practices as are obviously based merely on tradition.* A. D. W.

THERE IS EVIDENCE that strong and wholesome efforts are now being made in this country to discover ways and means of developing unified State programs of education that include both the vocational and cultural objectives. For example, (1) in a recent issue of *Occupations*, there appears a recommendation from Dr. E. C. Elliott's Committee to the National Occupational Conference that the conference "approve and promote the present tendency . . . whereby liberal and vocational education approach each other in method and objectives." (2) The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has at the present time a special committee considering "the possibilities of developing a program of public education which includes both vocational and cultural education." This special committee presents its first report at the annual (1934) meeting of the Department of Superintendence. (3) At the Detroit meeting of the American Vocational Association (December 1933) there was much said and done to bring about a closer coördination of the existing program of vocational and general education in the several States. (4) Furthermore, it is generally accepted by leading educators that education for economic pursuits must somehow become an integral part of any program of public education. The truth of this statement is borne out by the fact that in any one of a dozen or more statements of educational objectives which have been developed during the past fifteen years the "economic" or "vocational" objective is invariably included.

In spite of these honest strivings for and apparent general acceptance of the principle that public education should definitely concern itself with education for economic pursuits as well as for the cultural development of the individual, there remains a wide disparity between principle and practice. In other words, there have not yet emerged adequate methods of applying the accepted principle.

Any careful analysis of the present educational situation, however, will reveal the fact that this disparity between principle and practice is not a problem of the *economic objectives* as against the *cultural objectives* in education; it is rather a problem of getting the objectives in any and all phases of education to function. For nearly two decades we have been making statements of educational objectives which include both the general and vocational elements, but up to this time we have not found ways and means of applying any of them in actual practice in our State programs of public education. As we face this situation we are astounded by the fact that as yet we have accomplished so little in the direction of realization upon educational objectives in any field!

This situation should not be laid at the door of any particular group of educators, nor should prejudice be allowed to enter and blur our thinking in this important matter. We are all agreed that something must be done, and we are all looking to unity of effort in doing the necessary task. The task lying immediately before us in developing a unified program for public education which includes education for economic pursuits is one of finding how to put objectives to work in program making. When we have discovered adequate procedures to this end, we will have a unified program of public edu-

cation, and the cultural as well as the vocational objectives will find their proper and rightful places.

Some time ago in addressing the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association John Dewey said:

Unless and until we permit or rather encourage the schools to abandon certain traditions which have no relation to existing social realities, our thinking in matters of the greatest public concern will continue to be thoroughly stupid and our leaders will be such only in the sense in which the blind lead the blind. . . . One of the functions of education is to equip individuals to take an active concern in bettering conditions. Our schools have failed notably and lamentably in that regard. . . . We believe one thing in words and to a considerable extent in sentiment. We believe another in our deeds. The split prevents the older traditions from giving us guidance, while they retain enough hold on people's minds so that they are not replaced by any other collective ideas.

Let us see if in this philosophy we may discover working bases for getting educational objectives to function. Of course, schools cannot better conditions in general, nor can they better social institutions as such, for institutions cannot be educated. The conditions within any institution are made up of the way people live and act together in carrying on the work of that institution. In other words, "existing social realities" within any institution at any time are revealed by the ways in which people work together in carrying on the functions of any institution. For example, the ways in which parents and children live and act together in carrying out the functions of a home constitute the existing social realities in that home. The ways in which cotton farmers live and act together and separately in producing cotton fiber for society's use reveal the social realities in the institution of cotton farming. In brief, we can see and understand existing social realities in any institution by examining the ways in which people live and act together in carrying on the work of that institution.

When schools begin to deal with "existing social realities," they begin to deal with

the activities incident to the necessary achievement in the several units of our social structure. They begin to deal with activities in our homes, activities in our neighborhoods, activities in our churches, activities in our vocations, activities in our governmental units, etc. The way these activities are carried on make for social conditions. To better these conditions, says Dewey, is the social aim of public education, and it is the social aim of education that is here under discussion.

Now, in accomplishing this social aim of education, we have variously formulated and stated the objectives of education in terms of these existing social realities or activities. One statement of educational objectives groups these activities as follows: citizenship activities, health activities, recreational activities, religious activities, social activities, economic activities (productive), and economic activities (consumptive). Up to the present moment we have made these statements of objectives meaningless, because we have attempted to relate them to traditional school subjects instead of to "existing social realities" in our institutional life and living.

To get these objectives to function in the accomplishment of the social aim of education, we "must abandon traditions which have no relation to existing social realities," and set about it to "equip individuals to concern themselves" with improving the ways in which people live and act together in all social institutions. Modern social objectives in education to be functional in bettering conditions must find their expression in and through institutional life and activity at all age levels. This is the secret of putting educational objectives to work in accomplishing the social aim of education.

Here, we might ask: Can *citizenship activities* become a functional objective in meeting the social aim in American education? Putting the question a little differently, Can the school find ways and means of bettering citizenship activities in our homes,

in our neighborhoods, in our churches, in our counties, in our vocations, in our States, and in all other social institutions at any given level? If this question can be answered in the affirmative, then we can accept "citizenship" as a functional objective. We can likewise test other educational objectives: the *recreational* objectives, *health* objectives, *religious* objectives, etc. Can education find ways and means of bettering social, recreational, health, and religious activities in our homes, our neighborhoods, our churches, our vocations, our governmental units, etc., at given levels of human development? If this question can be answered in the affirmative, then these objectives can become functional in directing our educational program to the accomplishment of its social aim.

At this point we may wish to pause long enough to make inquiry: Do existing conditions in these institutions need to be bettered in any given state or community? This discussion assumes that such needs exist generally and will continue to exist as long as we continue to make progress.

*Economic activities*, both productive and consumptive, to become functional educational objectives must meet the same test: Can the school find ways and means of bettering productive economic activities in any given vocation? Can the existing conditions in cotton farming on actual farms be bettered by appropriate education? Can the existing conditions in food merchandizing be improved through appropriate education? Can the existing conditions of school teaching be improved by appropriate education? Can the existing conditions in the building trades or any other trade be bettered by means of proper education? Also, can the school find ways of bettering consumptive activities in and through the social units concerned with the actual problems of economic consumption? Can schools equip individuals to better their activities in purchasing, spending, saving, giving, etc.? If these questions are answered in the affirmative, then economic ac-

tivities, both productive and consumptive, should be admitted to our list of socially functional educational objectives.

Vocations are institutions through which and in which we carry on our productive economic activities. They are institutions through which we make our productive contributions to society. They are like other institutions in that they affect the well-being of all members of our social order; they are unlike other institutions in that they have become so specialized as to function that the welfare of the social whole is often dependent upon a relatively small vocational group; e.g., dairy farmers, coal miners, lawyers, shoemakers, doctors, automobile mechanics, educational administrators, and hundreds of other specialized vocational groups. We say we have developed into an interdependent society as far as vocations are concerned.

During recent months we have come to feel the reality of this interdependence. When those engaged in cotton farming and wheat farming suffered the loss of income, all industrial and professional groups suffered also, and a depression beset us. Maladjustment between vocational groups brings on depression and national calamities. In our interdependent society the breaking down of productive economic activity in vocational institutions is the beginning of social disintegration.

Like any other institution or group of institutions, however, vocations can be bettered if our schools will "equip individuals to take an active concern in bettering" them. Bettering vocations through education of the individual is not limited to the betterment of vocational skills and knowledges only. It includes as well the betterment of the citizenship, social, recreational, health, and ethical activities in vocations. All the objectives of education, as they function in bettering human relations and activities in vocations, must be included. In our interdependent society when small group loyalties in vocations become so strong that the total social welfare is ignored in favor of the small group,

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society is again endangered. Bettering citizenship activities in vocations is just as important as bettering citizenship activities in our governmental units or in our homes.

As far as the social aim is concerned we shall find unity in our educational programs not by setting cultural objectives over against the vocational objectives, but by setting acceptable educational objectives to work in wrestling with social realities. Schools cannot change conditions in general nor can they change institutions as such, but they must

"equip individuals to take an active concern in bettering conditions" in any and all units of society, including vocations. When our schools begin to equip boys and girls and men and women to concern themselves through their own activities with improving conditions in their homes, in their neighborhoods, in their vocations, in their cities, in their States, in their motion pictures, and so on, we will have a new kind of subject matter in a new, unified curriculum, which will include both cultural and vocational objectives.

## Club of the Air

Russel V. Burkhard

On December 5, the F. A. Day Junior High School Broadcasting Club started its first of a series of programs over WBZ. The fan mail this morning is a very gratifying indication that the public at large sees value in the offering.

Our pupil-planned broadcasts are quite likely to include several items, among which are: informal pupil interviews of public characters; the pupil views the news—be it local, State, or international; what other schools are doing, let us say, about Thanksgiving, about Christmas, relief of veterans; some music, but limited; did you know that, or things you never heard before; little journeys, or near-by excursions; dramalogues; values in outside class activities; for instance, what the band means to me, the magazine, the radio.

We feel that the radio experience is a very helpful factor in offering judgment opportunities for children, quite beyond the fact that they are given thorough drill in the skills. It is quite accepted that children need much training in the ability to live harmoniously in the community. We are looking for ways and means to tie up this radio work more closely with our curriculum in giving practical outlets for oral expression and thought. We hope eventually to develop among the schools of the nation a definite time in the school day, perhaps to be known as the Pupils' Forum, which will permit an exchange of ideas of pupils and by pupils of the secondary level.

I am enclosing a copy of part of a letter from the George B. Miller Junior High School of Aberdeen, Washington. This may break the ice for other schools to send in correspondence indicating their trend. The Newton Senior High School, I understand, has also formed a broadcasting club of some fifty-five members.

"For the past year and a half our school has sponsored a radio program once a month in order to give the public a cross section of school life. The students themselves organize and conduct the programs which include only student talent. We have presented some of our programs from the school auditorium, from which we have a direct line to the Aberdeen radio station KXRO, the station farthest west in the United States.

"On the radio programs we have presented:

1. Teacher interviews on school problems, athletics, social science
2. Reports of club activity by the presidents of the various clubs
3. Musical numbers consisting of songs and various instrumental selections
4. Dramatic department skits and plays over the air
5. Student Body officers' talks about their duties
6. Election campaigning for student offices over the air
7. Physical-education directors' explanations concerning the physical-education program for the year, telling about the games and contests for the year
8. School pep band. (We started a school pep band last year.) This band consisted of only junior-high-school boys. They play at the pep assemblies and occasionally at the athletic events
9. Sextet of the school
10. Boys' quartet

"The programs last a half an hour, from 8.00 to 8.30 in the evening. Every program is opened and closed by the singing or playing of the school song.

"We are anxiously waiting for the next edition of THE CLEARING HOUSE in which we hope to find suggestions for the improvement of our programs."

# Towards Abundant Living

Weaver W. Pangburn

EDITOR'S NOTE: In the following article Mr. Pangburn of the National Recreation Association summarizes the efforts now being made to provide adequate direction and guidance in recreational activities.

A. D. W.

**B**RINGING TOGETHER the strands of many national and local movements for the enrichment of American life, the Twentieth National Recreation Congress,<sup>1</sup> held in Washington, D.C., October 1-5, 1934, presented as complete a picture as this generation has had of the progress and problems of public recreation in the United States. In twenty-four section meetings, four symposia, and eight general sessions, the nine hundred delegates grappled with the implications for recreation of the swiftly declining birth rate, the plight of thousands of young people out of school and colleges and unwanted in industry, the idleness of the millions of older unemployed, the changing interests of Americans in their leisure, the shrinking of appropriations for recreation, and many other questions.

Significant of the Federal Government's new aggressiveness in developing the nation's recreational resources, and particularly its lands, were the reports made by representatives of the National Park Service, National Forest Service, Office of Education, the Children's Bureau, the Agricultural Extension Service, the Federal Emergency Relief Corporation, the Subsistence Homestead Corporation, the Tennessee Valley Authority, the Biological Survey, and the National Resources Board.

"You are doing a bully good job," was the message sent to the conference by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. Mrs. Roosevelt in one of the principal addresses voiced her

enthusiasm for recreational planning and particularly for the place of skilled recreation leaders.

Though humbled by the strain of the depression and charged with a spirit of experimentation and inquiry, the conference was predominantly affirmative and optimistic, maintaining the promise of its general theme "Recreation and the Abundant Life."

## REBUILT CITIES FORESEEN

Billions of dollars worth of materials, labor, and technical skill will be purchased for the reconstruction of the big cities of the United States in the interest of good living, it was stated by Jacob L. Crane, Jr., president of the American City Planning Institute of Chicago. While the big cities of the country represent "our seeking and striving for abundant life," they remain with few exceptions "not much more than big, overgrown, industrial, and commercial camps, in some part ugly, grossly uneconomic, dirty, and noisy, and full of confusion and strain." The reorganization and major rebuilding of these cities offers the greatest single opportunity for the utilization of our natural resources and of our natural resourcefulness, Mr. Crane stated. He continued:

The city of the future should be a regional city, open to the sky, green and pleasant, distinguished and satisfying in its physical appearance, clean and quiet, rich in parks and playgrounds and beautiful waterfronts, in museums, concert halls, recreation centers and public buildings, and accessible to the open country—to great country playgrounds.

John Colt, chairman of the administrative council of the New Jersey Emergency Relief Administration, declared:

I see in this country a new age of pioneering, so much more glorious than that of the old age that there is no comparison, and it is a pioneering that is instinct with greater human riches than anything we have heard of before. It is a pioneering

<sup>1</sup> The complete text of all general addresses and summaries of section meetings will be published in successive issues of the *Recreation* magazine, commencing with November 1934.

in human relationship, and in that pioneering the surface has just been scraped.

The leisure-time division of the New Jersey Relief Administration which served 42,000 individual participants in a wide variety of recreational activities was declared by Mr. Colt to be one of the parts of the State program of which he was most proud.

Speaking on the theme, "Progress in the Art of Living," Dr. Arthur E. Morgan, chairman, board of directors of the Tennessee Valley Authority, said, among other things,

The National Recreation Association in its efforts to revive games and recreation of all sorts is performing a genuine service. If that service is well performed, recreation in America can be on a higher cultural level than in any other country, for the reason that here we have cultural elements from all countries. If we can select from that great rich mass of cultural elements the excellencies, the fineness, and weave them into a new art of play in this country, we can have our recreation on a higher level than anywhere else.

#### FERA FAVORS RECREATION PROJECTS

The Federal Relief Administration, it was pointed out by Aubrey Williams, its assistant director, strongly favors recreation projects such as building playgrounds, tennis courts, bathing beaches, swimming pools and gymnasiums, and developing parks as well as giving employment to recreation leaders as one of the most constructive kinds of work projects for the unemployed. Mr. Williams said:

I shall never forget one thrill I got in New Orleans. The workmen were draining a thousand-acre swamp in the center of town for conversion into a park. The area had been a swamp from time immemorial, I suppose. The director told me of the zest and joy the men put into that job because they understood what the work was for.

Governor John G. Winant of New Hampshire said, among other things,

Any one who has been close to the misery of this depression knows that far more than food, shelter, and clothing must be supplied to meet the wants of people. The need for the relief from mental strain and worry no one can measure.

After describing the very extensive recreational developments in his State, many of them made possible during the depression, the Governor added,

Our objective is conservation—conservation of our natural resources for the benefit of mankind in order that we may preserve all that is best in ourselves and develop all that is finest in our children.

The support of parks, playgrounds, and community centers, and the provision of competent leadership for recreation are a good investment of tax money, asserted William Butterworth, former president of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, in a radio talk from the conference. Pointing to the value of well-organized play in preventing juvenile delinquency, he said, "For one man who steals because his family is hungry, a dozen boys go wrong because of bad companionship and lack of a recreational environment."

#### ARTS TO THE FORE

Mrs. Eugene Meyer, chairman of the Westchester County, New York, Recreation Commission, said that

One of the most interesting and one of the most important aspects of the recreation movement is the love of the arts which it is fostering in all ages and in all types of citizens. In these new art schools or workshops, as they are generally called, everybody is welcomed regardless of talent or previous experience. There is no attempt to produce great works of art, though often the results obtained are singularly beautiful. The whole purpose is to produce good citizens who will find their lives enriched through creative effort and through an appreciation of what others have produced in the cultural field.

Park executives are working to secure at least one acre of land to be used for park purposes to each hundred of the population in the cities, according to Ernest K. Thomas, Superintendent of Parks of Providence, Rhode Island. Very few municipalities have approached this standard as yet, and most have not yet come within fifty per cent of it, he said.

Because of the remarkable decline in the birth rate the nation is coming to have a large proportion of older people, it was pointed out at several sessions. Consequently recreation service is and must continue to be altered to suit the interests of adults which are not primarily physical, but social, civic, and cultural, declared L. H. Weir of the park service of the National Recreation Association. The prevalence of long week-ends and lengthy after-work periods also profoundly affects recreational planning. Several speakers pointed out that public authorities should seek to encourage far more self-organized and self-directed recreational activities among adults, restricting their own responsibility to supplying facilities and means of instruction and leadership.

#### NEW RECREATION STRATEGY CALLED FOR

A strong opposition to anything smacking of superimposed activities was revealed at the congress, according to Roy Smith Wallace, also of the National Recreation Association. Recreation leadership in the future, he said, will not be as much confined as hitherto to places such as parks, playgrounds, schools, and centers, nor to agencies. It will be focused more on helping individuals to discover and develop their interests and hobbies as a lasting source of satisfaction and a growing cultural interest throughout their lives.

The fundamental importance of citizen boards and commissions in the administration of public recreation as well as the necessity for a more highly trained body of leaders was repeatedly reaffirmed.

Through a display of extensive exhibits of recreation projects under the NRA in several communities and States, and numerous other exhibits, informal training classes in the conduct of folk dances, games, and other forms of social recreation, and the provision of consultation periods with specialists in many fields, the congress upheld its tradition of an annual training institute in recreation methods.

Devoted primarily to discussions of how people may be helped in the enrichment of their lives, the conference was not blind to its relationship to the national struggle towards recovery and achievement of economic security. As V. K. Brown, director of recreation of the South Park Commission of Chicago, said in his summary of the session of recreation executives,

It is quite evident, I think, that in the struggle of the human spirit to reinterpret life—the struggle now going forward—a call to the colors is enlisting us all in a movement not of shock troops, but of a people as a whole. It is apparent, I submit, that the feeling is becoming almost universal that perhaps the most momentous event in the life of this generation was not the shot at Sarajevo, but that day when the supreme court of a people devoted to economic individualism declared constitutional the principle of a graduated income tax and in so doing sounded the death knell of unregulated freedom in the pursuit of economic gain as a life purpose.

Mrs. Roosevelt and other speakers spoke similarly of the promise of a new ideal of success in American life, of a conception of successful living not in terms of material acquisition but of growth in personality and culture.

# Education's New Challenge

V. M. Hardin

EDITOR'S NOTE: *V. M. Hardin, principal of the Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools of Springfield, Missouri, presents a very definite challenge to high-school teachers. Mr. Hardin is concerned with the need for action on the part of schools in the direction of vitalizing the experiences of children who go to school by providing for something more realistic than the traditional academic learning.*

A. D. W.

IT IS A CHALLENGING FACT recognized on the part of thinking school people that education is facing problems more complex and serious in their very nature than those of any time in the past—problems that baffle us and confuse us to such an extent that we have at times lost our sense of direction. We are not joining the ranks of the calamity howlers nor do we wish to be among the alarmists. We merely wish to point out rather specifically and definitely the problems that are before us as teachers and laymen alike. These problems challenge our worth as educational leaders, challenge the laymen in all walks of life to come out of hiding, out of the traditional woodshed, figuratively speaking, where they have been enduring the pain of the spanking given them by the depression. Both laymen and teachers alike cannot afford to play around hoping that some kind fairy in the form of a Roosevelt, of the National Government, or even of our State or local governments will provide adequately for our social and economic welfare. Surely these agencies can assist us, but the final responsibility in the last analysis rests upon us and it is ours to act. Most of us remember the traditional story of the burning of Rome. Some thoughtful critic pointed out recently that the most serious indictment that could be brought against Nero was that he was perfectly content to fiddle while his city burned. How many of our American people in the days of 1929 and even now are supinely fiddling while needless human suffering

continues and the real values of life are threatened to be submerged by the relatively unimportant.

If you are anticipating the challenges which we shall present for your consideration, we are sure that you will agree with us when we announce the financial crisis in education as being first on the list. It is a lamentable fact that teachers by the hundreds have lost their positions and have had no calls to other fields of service. Those who have been more fortunate in retaining positions of some sort have had their incomes slashed unmercifully and some are even working for a mere promise, hoping that fate will deal a little more kindly with them in the future.

But there is yet a worse situation and that situation has two outstanding phases. One is that the financial crisis is so unnecessary. Here we live in a land of abundant resources and have the necessary machines to provide for the necessities of every one and yet in spite of this our schools are being embarrassed. The second phase is the bold indifference of many citizens to what is happening to schools and to civilization. Some people remind one of the story of the old darky and the mule. Sam traded a mule to his neighbor Mose. A few days later Mose met Sam and said, "Sam, yo knows dat mule you traded me am stone blind." "Go on, Nigger, how come?" "Why, when I turned him into de pasture, he walked slam into a tree." "Pshaw, Mose, dat mule ain't blind, he jes don't give a damn."

We should not censure these people too severely because of this attitude. For one thing, that giant enemy of mankind—fear—occupies the front part of the stage.

In the next place we school people have been asleep ourselves. We have failed to guide the public in the redefinition and the reinterpretation of the functions of educa-

tion in the light of our ever changing order of society. We are now paying the penalty for our failure to see the forest for the trees, for our inability to see the handwriting on the wall. Therefore, when we appeal for funds to finance an adequate educational program, the public turns deaf ears towards us. Too many of our patrons regarded education in the more prosperous days as a guarantee to a white-collar job or as a short cut to a portion of a page in *Who's Who*.

The question confronting us is: How may we meet the challenge of the financial crisis? So far as immediate relief is concerned we will have to resort to "devices,"—sales tax, increased franchise tax, or some other financial device for the present emergency. Just as a physician resorts to heroic but temporary measures to revive the patient so will we till we can recover our sense of equilibrium.

The next step will be to plan a long-time program. In order to do this intelligently, we must first determine what kind of a program we want to finance. It is more important to know this than to ask for money in a blind fashion. We have seen some things done in the name of education that were unworthy of the financial support of any community.

The second phase of our long-time program would be a sound policy of public relations. Such a policy would involve these lines of action. First, a broader conception of the functions of education in their relation to a better order of society and in their relation to the full realization of the "American Dream," which James Truslow Adams defines as the dream of a land in which life should be better and richer and fuller for every man, with abundant opportunity for each according to his ability or achievement.

Second, a clearer notion of why we support education for all the children of all the people at public expense. These which I shall mention are indicative of the kind of thinking that should go on in the minds of parents: (1) We support education because we believe that a democracy is impossible where

only a select few enjoy educational opportunities. (2) We support education because we believe that this changing order of society demands a higher degree and richer quality of intelligence than any age in the past. (3) We support education because of the inherent right of the child to grow and become all that it is humanly possible and it is education's business to coöperate in bringing this about.

How are we to carry out such an ambitious program? By stimulating a keen interest in the problems on the part of our patrons to the end that they will sit down with us and study the situation that confronts us in an unprejudiced fashion. By the organization of adult-education classes. By utilizing the study groups of our parent-teacher associations. And, finally by a wise policy of publicity. Why should not the front pages of our papers be filled with stories of communities working out coöperatively their social and economic problems?

The financial crisis can be passed satisfactorily provided we attack the problem in a rational manner and challenge ourselves to make a full contribution of real leadership.

The second challenge confronting education today is that of reconstructing the school to meet adequately this new era in which we find ourselves. That there is a wide gap between what goes on in the school and what is taking place in our dynamic order of society is painfully evident to those of us who are interested in closing the gap, interested in seeing the school assume its full share in contributing to the regeneration of society. It is true that the school cannot and must not accept the whole responsibility for the remaking of society. For one thing the school does not have the child within its fold until the child has reached the age of six and a lot of things have taken place in his mental and emotional make-up in those years. In the next place, the school does not have complete control of the child's environment during the twenty-four hours of the day. Finally, there are other essential forces which, if wisely

and skillfully directed, are as potent in possibilities as the school. Having recognized these limitations, we are now prepared to say that the school must launch a positive program for dealing with the present confusion both within and without the school. Our program must be dynamic in its very nature and must be rich in opportunities for boys and girls to identify themselves ever increasingly with the world of reality of which they are a part, rich in opportunities and in the provision of experiences by which they may realize the maximum in growth and development.

How are we to do this? First, we must make it possible through our educational program for youth to understand and make adjustments to the stern realities of this machine age. What are some of the realities? Ranking foremost is the age of speed in which we live. The tempo of our whole American life has been increased at a tremendous rate within a brief span of years. Yesterday we read in our histories that Magellan sailed around the world in thirty-seven months. Now the disciples of Lindbergh cover the same distance in practically one third as many days. Yesterday we were a rural people for the most part guided by the principles which underlie what Stuart Chase calls the "Economics of Scarcity." Today we are an urban population living in an environment of a new system of economics but ignoring the principles involved. In the third place, society is confronted with the stubborn problem of leisure, which we are poorly prepared to face satisfactorily. Finally, we are the victims of the philosophy of rugged individualism and as a result we have breadlines, community chests, and a breakdown in our economic system, if it can be called a system. These are only a few of the striking realities but they are sufficient to indicate where we need to place the emphasis if we would introduce youth properly to the realities of this age.

Second, students must be acquainted with the life of the community of which they are

a part. To do this satisfactorily requires that the school shall have creative teachers—teachers who have not only a wealth of training which far exceeds that of the past but also those superior qualities which make for breadth of understanding and furnish the type of leadership which is in all too many instances so woefully lacking.

Finally within each individual there must be kindled a consuming passion to contribute the finest of his energies to the gigantic task which stares us in the face. To be content with merely realizing the realities of the machine age, with being oriented in the social, economic, and political life of the community is far short of the desideratum. Individuals need to be guided in the discovery of their own special abilities whether in art, music, financial, or professional activities to the end that they may contribute the finest of their energies and personal worth to our ever changing society and to the end that they may live usefully and happily in that society.

The crowning challenge is the need for building up a right attitude towards intelligent participation in our American democracy. The chaotic mess we are now in is due largely to our misconception of the true meaning of democracy. Democracy as conceived by the average American involves the inalienable and inherited right of the individual to win out at all costs. Life is a race and the spoils belong to the strong. The survival of the fittest is a favorite expression of ours; by the fittest we mean the most successful exploiters. The measuring unit of success has not been the individual's contribution to the sum total of the welfare of society, but the amount he has been able to divert from the regular channels to his own selfish interests. We have been admirers of men who showed the greatest ability in so manipulating the financial wires that they subtracted more than their just proportion from the purse of the nation. We have encouraged practices which have led us fairly close to the brink of an economic and social

disaster. We have worshiped at the shrine of material success for the select few and have forgotten how to live. Our whole system of social ideals is in dire need of reconstruction if we are to enjoy life at its highest and best. Why this deplorable situation? In the first place, we have a mixed philosophy of life composed of two totally unlike elements. One element owes its origin to Jefferson, advocate of the rights of the common man. This ideal has played a very prominent part in our political life, particularly in the rural sections of our nation. The other element harks back to Hamilton who had no faith in the masses of people but believed that an aristocracy of property was essential to good government. Hence, at Rotary and Kiwanis Clubs, at public gatherings, we talk like Jefferson, but in our economic activities we act like Hamilton.

In the second place, the school has made its due contribution to the false conception of democracy. We have emphasized both at the expense of society and the child too many of the antisocial elements of success. Competitive examinations, competitive athletics, the scheme of selecting the valedictorian and the other "orians" of the graduating class, the offering of prizes and awards—all have built up a wrong conception of life and the part each plays in his social rôle.

The time is at hand when we must provide experiences both within the curriculum

and in the extracurricular program for developing constructive attitudes towards society—activities which will offer abundant opportunities for students to learn how to live creatively in an interdependent order of society; experiences tending to make the "American Dream" come true. Every individual not only should have the opportunities to which he is entitled but should be stimulated to grow and become all that is humanly possible for him to become. This may seem like a highly idealistic objective for our educational program, particularly to the ultra-conservatives, but we cannot as teachers justify our worth to society without reconstructing our school procedures on a more intelligent basis.

Let us summarize by saying, first, that the financial crisis challenges us not merely to secure sufficient revenue for our schools, imperative though that is: The vital question concerns the kind of a program we want financed and the extent to which we are going to convince the public that the schools are worth all the cost. Second, if the school would be a constructive agency worthy of the respect and confidence of our nation it must close the wide gap that exists between it and society. Finally, the school must provide experiences and opportunities which will not only build a new conception of democracy but will make possible a richer and better life in that democracy.

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# Coöperation—A Myth or a Reality?

William H. Smith

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. William H. Smith, who contributes the following article, is principal of the Vernon L. Davy Junior High School of East Orange, New Jersey. His experience has led him to raise serious questions about some of the situations arising out of new types of procedure in high-school teaching. Perhaps some of our readers will find themselves wishing to answer Mr. Smith's contention.*

A. D. W.

ANY COMMENT upon educational matters is of worth only in so far as it corresponds with the reader's own experience. To be sure, the comment may have the quality of calling to the reader's attention aspects of the case to which notice had not previously been accorded, and in such a case the experience to challenge the statement is that which comes subsequent to the comment. In either case, however, the experience of the reader is the final arbiter. True, there is a tendency in human nature to justify theories by their logical perfection, by their promise for the future, by their idealistic content, but in the last analysis human nature is scientific in that it requires the testing of theory by experience and allows only experience to make the final judgment. It is, therefore, to experience that the following comment is addressed.

One of the commonest and most vigorous claims we hear made by the proponents of the so-called "new" education is that among its most valued outcomes is the spirit of coöperation which it engenders. Now, it may be that this statement is a begging of the question, and it will be such if it is agreed that new education, or progressive education, or whatever name it may carry, is allotted only to education which produces coöperation. But probably so narrow a definition would not satisfy the modernists. They do not consider coöperation as the only product of the new education, certainly not the essential and vital element, but rather a by-product,

a by-product which, nevertheless, like many of the by-products in industry, adds enormously to the profits. Here, again, we are met with the need for definition. The enthusiasm with which "coöperation" is advanced as a valued by-product of the new education leads one to suspect that perhaps here is a new quality which is being engendered, something that has never before been created. Now, of course, if the coöperation thus produced is some new kind of coöperation which can arise only in the new setting, why then, naturally, the claim is justified; but if coöperation is used in the ordinary meaning, if it is used in the sense of working together in harmony for a common end, if it is used as expressing the highest of civic virtues, and unless it is so used it can have little significance in any educational scheme devoted to the development of society, then, indeed, does the claim that only in the new education is such coöperation possible demand consideration. Perhaps it is beside the point, so far as the main argument is concerned, to mention one query which the idea of civic coöperation suggests, and yet it does illustrate how far from simple any of these educational questions are when considered with attention. This question asks what assurance have we, if it is civic coöperation which is meant by both the ancients and the modernists, that there will be transfer from coöperation developed in the school to the coöperation needed in society unless the society which the child enters when he leaves school is like the school from which he comes. Surely, no one assumes that society is organized on a "progressive basis," nor that society will be organized upon such a basis in the near future. True, we all have hope and faith that such will be the ultimate destiny of society and towards that end we are all striving, but

to expect it in any future which the child now in school will see is to have a faith that would move mountains.

That this civic coöperation is not peculiarly characteristic of the progressive school but exists in many so-called "conservative" schools and in society itself even without the transformation which lies so far ahead is evident if we ask ourselves what is the coöperation which one finds serving as the cement between the courses of society? Is it not the acceptance of responsibility and the carrying forward to fruition certain tasks whether those tasks are imposed from within or from without? Is it not characterized by a clear understanding of the relationship the undertaking bears to other undertakings? Is it not the willingness to subordinate one's personal desires and interests to a vision of a larger need? Coöperation with every one of these qualities can and does appear in conservative schools, even though, as is often pointed out, and with a great deal of truth, that which is called coöperation in the conservative school is sometimes nothing but blind acquiescence on the part of the pupil, that the highest concept the teacher has when she says that "a pupil coöperates" is that he is quiet and obedient. Where such a condition exists, the situation is worthy of all condemnation, but thanks to the "new" ideas which are leavening the whole mass of educational thought it is becoming more and more rare even in those schools which are frankly reactionary.

It will probably be argued in reply that coöperation in the "progressive" school is also characterized by a voluntary attitude on the part of the pupil, an attitude which has in it an element of creativeness, since it originates with the pupil himself. Leaving aside any consideration of how easily teachers deceive themselves into seeing a voluntary quality in the pupil's reaction when in reality the attitude of the child springs from his desire to please the teacher, a desire which is characteristic of every school in the world, it is proper to recall to our minds that as society

views coöperation, the willingness of the coöperator is more often measured by his ability to understand and execute orders than it is to give them. Society looks upon the section hand who keeps the track in repair as coöperating as vitally as the division superintendent who orders the repair. Can any one deny that the great Russian Dam was a coöperative effort? Yet, however voluntary such a project is in its origin, it can go forward only under dominating leadership. Probably the modernists would claim that the essential quality of voluntary coöperation is lacking in any such project. Is it not, however, a fact that there is the clearest sort of proof from experience both in school and in society that coöperation is advantageously effective only under a proper leadership? Is not the most common weakness attributed to democracy the ineffectiveness of leaderless coöperation whence has arisen the modern demand for a dictator who will rescue us from the unrestrained self-expression of the units in society? The willingness to subordinate one's personal desires and interests to a vision of a larger need is one of the hardest things for the human being to adopt as a principle of his life. May not the conservative school challenge the progressive school to prove that it is giving full weight to the demand for such subordination of personal interests without which coöperation in society is impossible? But there is no thought here of challenge, unless it is a challenge to claim that coöperation under effective leadership is essential to society, and that such coöperation is manifested to some degree in every walk of life in school and out. It would be a mere splitting of hairs to deny the term "coöperation" to a manager of an A. & P. store when we accord it to the manager of a farmer's exchange. It would seem hard to deny the name of "coöperator" to the member of a boys' choir if he gets twenty-five cents a week, but accord it to the member of a glee club who pays for the privilege of belonging.

This human need for leadership manifests

itself in those very situations which the modernists boast of as the great breeding ground for voluntary coöperation. If one looks with attention at any of the group work in the new schools, does he not see, that is, if the coöperation is effective, that the success of the group is, nine times out of ten, conditioned by the leadership of some one person in the group who rises to his position through personal qualities, and effects a subordination of the parts and efforts of the various members to the purpose of the whole? For such group work leading to coöperative efforts under effective leaders, there is no necessity that the problem shall be vital. It is not required that it shall be a unit; there is no necessity that it shall be self-selected. There is no doubt that if these qualities are present the ultimate outcomes will be richer and more valuable, but that does not alter the fact that development of coöperative efforts and training in civic coöperation is possible without the presence of these other elements.

How, then, can it be said that only if a school has departed so far from the "old" (whatever that may mean to Rousseau and Pestalozzi) that it has won the name of progressive can it hope to make coöperation an essential element in its school life, and an important habit in its pupils? Probably the definition of what is meant by progressive is the difficulty. A few years ago that school was progressive which had problems in its course of study, then it had to have projects, then it had to have units, and after that it

had to have activity with or without a course of study. Now every one except the last is Tory. It is assumed, and it is probably true, that from the standpoint of the ideal as conceived by the advocates of these different forms of school life, each is higher and more comprehensive than the next preceding. But yet, who has the temerity to deny that there has been a high degree of coöperation manifested under every form.

Advocates of the so-called new education have much to their credit, but not the least (though seldom expressed) is that it has inspired many of the conservative schools to reconsider their position and to challenge extravagant claims of those who feel there is no hope except in a new deal. The conservative school is only conservative to a degree just as the progressive school is progressive only to a degree. If one were to measure all schools by any criteria whatever, progressive or conservative, there would be as much overlapping as the testers find in all phases of human activity. The assumption of virtue by those who stand high on the theoretical criteria seems a bit adolescent. Only experience can in the end adjudicate. Even the prophet had to submit to experience. "Should the prediction of a prophet speaking as from the Eternal be not fulfilled, should the thing never happen, then that is a word which the Eternal never uttered." Certainly, if the religious prophet must wait upon experience to prove his prophecies, the prophets in education may well assume a less ensured attitude until history has spoken.

# The Personal Record File

Herbert C. Hawk

EDITOR'S NOTE: *From Winfield, Kansas, comes the following discussion of a personal record file which makes it possible for teachers and administrators to keep themselves informed of the complete personal history of each pupil in the school, and, what is more important, to seize upon the occasion to give a word of criticism or a word of praise.* A. D. W.

**A**NY SUBSTANTIAL COURSE in secondary-school administration will emphasize some time during the course the necessity of a thorough, complete, and adequate system of office records. Since colleges have placed greater emphasis on guidance and personnel work, and since the advent of government aid for deserving college students, high schools have been called upon to provide more personnel information than ever before, and to have available adequate records that show not only the pupil standing in terms of grades and academic achievement, but, in addition, records that chart the growth and progress of the pupil throughout his entire school career.

In the Winfield, Kansas, school system this necessity has been recognized for some time, with the consequence that administrative emphasis has been placed on the development of an informative set of records. One of the first developments in this evolution was the creation of a department of tests and measurements with a director in charge who was especially trained in this field. The director was charged with the responsibility of carrying on a complete testing program within the entire school system, including the tabulation and interpretation of the results and the recording of individual test records, obtained from a battery of intelligence, educational, prognostic, and diagnostic tests given the individual pupil at scheduled intervals throughout his entire school career. The scores made on these tests are recorded on an individual pupil test-record card and kept on file for reference.

A second development grew out of extra-curricular activity interest and participation of pupils. Mr. T. H. Vaughan, vice principal of the high school, developed an activity-point award system, which was in itself a record-keeping system of activity participation. A card was devised which listed all of the various activities in which activity points and awards could be earned. As now used, the pupil obtains this card, fills out the space describing the activity, takes the card to the sponsor for approval, and eventually turns the card in to be filed and used in the tabulation for merit awards. Through this procedure complete activity records for individual pupils are kept on file.

A third development came about through the organization of a department of guidance with increased emphasis placed upon the homeroom as a guidance agency. Through homeroom teachers and guidance officers information such as the following was obtained to be placed on record: home address, course, progress of majors and minors; whether the pupil expects to attend college or not; activities and hobbies of most interest to the pupil; name of parents; distance traveled to school daily; whether the pupil contributes to the support of his family or not; whether he earns his own spending money or not; whether he works out of school hours and what he does; and how he spends his leisure time. Homeroom teachers are encouraged to make case studies of maladjusted pupils, studies which are available and on file for reference.

When Superintendent Evan E. Evans of the Winfield schools became principal of the Winfield Junior-Senior High School in 1925, he saw the need and convenience of bringing these records together with other supplementary information into what might be described as a cumulative personal-record file. An individual folder was made for each pu-

pil and a cabinet made available for filing. The folder is standard, 9½ by 11½, of Manila paper and is large enough to accommodate regular letter-size stationery. The file is now used for pupils, beginning with the first grade, and the folder is kept for the pupil throughout his entire school career. The following supplementary information is found in this file:

1. Attendance record and written excuses from parents
2. Records of health nurse and dental examination certificate
3. Teacher's report and analysis of cause for failure in subjects failed
4. Commendatory reports of teachers and sponsors of special achievements of the pupil
5. Reports of disciplinary difficulties called to the attention of the principal, with the principal's notation of the disposal of the case
6. Copies of correspondence concerning the pupil, especially letters directed to and received from the home
7. Printed programs of plays, recitals, or concerts, election ballots, or other printed ma-

terials of activities in which the pupil was a participant, with the sponsor's notation as to the reliability, coöperation, and degree of excellence attained in the pupil's part in the production

8. Newspaper clippings
9. Personal rating cards
10. Other miscellaneous information of value.

These records and the information collected for this file serve at least five specific administrative purposes. First of all, information is provided for commercial concerns, prospective employers, and guidance organizations of colleges. These records have value also for research and follow-up studies. Second, they provide information that is used as a basis for a guidance program. Third, they provide valuable data for case studies, of which about seventy such studies are now in progress in this high school. Fourth, they provide information that enables the classroom and homeroom teachers and sponsor to understand more readily and deal more intelligently with the individual pupil. Finally, the

PERMANENT DISEASE RECORD

(Check diseases as reported by parents. Give dates of disease from 1927 forward and in numbers as 12-10-27 for December 10, 1927.)

Chicken pox .....	
Diphtheria .....	
Measles .....	
Mumps .....	
Whooping cough .....	
Small pox .....	
Scarlet fever .....	
Vaccination .....	Successful .....
	Unsuccessful .....

Other diseases or serious injuries .....

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(6" x 7½" card)

Standardized Tests

Last Name, First Name				Educational			Intelligence			
Name of Test	Grade	Date	Age	Standard Score	Grade Median	Class Median	Pupils Score	Score	Mental Age	I.Q.
.....										
.....										
.....										

Pupil's Name *Floyd A.* Subject *Constitution* Teacher *Mr. S.* Period *First six weeks*  
 I.Q.: 99  
 Attendance: 3 absences, 1 tardiness  
 Application: Poor

<i>Test Record</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>Possible</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Passing</i>	<i>No. taking test</i>	<i>Rank from lowest</i>
1st test	61	126	98	74	96	4
2d test	81	160	122	92	94	8
Etc.						

Passing mark 75 per cent of the median.

Teacher's analysis of the cause of failure:

Floyd is working after school and until late at night in a local theater. He has no time to study and is usually drowsy and indifferent. When absent he can never come back for special help or make-up because of this conflict with his work. I find that he has no study halls and is trying to carry five subjects to make up credit lost in a failure last year. Mr. P. tells me that he is failing in his subject and is displaying much the same characteristics as in my subject. He has the mental ability to do the work satisfactorily, but it would seem to me that in the interest of health and scholarship there should be a readjustment made in his schedule that will enable him to have more time for schoolwork and sleep.

information obtained in this file is used to make a more intelligent and congenial contact with the home and build up a spirit of good will towards the school.

The written excuses listed in item one are those which are required for the readmission of a pupil. While many schools have given up the practice of requiring written excuses from home, for various reasons, it is still followed in the Winfield High School, and the purpose of filing these excuses is to keep these available for recheck and examination by parents in event of unwarranted or seeming irregularities in absences and excuses.

The health and contagious-disease record is provided on a form that is here submitted. On the reverse side of the permanent disease record card is the individual pupil's test record provided by the director of tests and measurements. The dental examination certificate is a standard dental examination blank provided by the State Board of Health.

Regarding the failure report, each teacher in the Winfield High School is required to submit a report to the principal's office at the close of each six-week period or semester for each pupil failure for that period. Pertinent information is asked for, the most important of which is the teacher's analysis of

the cause of failure. The type of report can best be illustrated by a specimen copy.

This report gives the school some valuable information for guidance in dealing with this case. It is obvious that a change of schedule is necessary. The parents should be called into consultation and some effort made to adjust the boy's out-of-school situation to his situation in school. The procedure adopted and the ultimate outcome make a splendid report to be included in the file.

It is a part of the administrative philosophy of the Winfield schools that special achievement and commendation of students should be emphasized and brought to the attention of parents with the same diligent effort as is given to pupil failure and lack of adjustment to the school. All teachers in the Winfield schools are urged by the superintendent to keep the administrative offices informed of all special achievements of pupils throughout the school system. In the high school these reports are handed to the principal and in the elementary schools they are turned in to the superintendent. Most of the reports naturally concern excellence in scholarship and citizenship, but there is no limitation and teachers are urged to report other types of special achievement. A specimen of such a report is here submitted.

Room 126      Teacher Miss G.      Date March 2  
Report concerning Mildred L.

Mildred as you know has been enrolled in this school about six weeks. She enrolled late in the semester from M—, which is a school much smaller than this. Not having had any previous art work, there was some question at first as to whether she should be enrolled in art this late in the semester. She convinced Mr. V., however, at the time she enrolled that she had a real interest in this subject, and she was enrolled in my second hour class in which the work is largely individual. I have been pleased from the very first at the progress she is making. This morning she brought me some of the work she has done at home, as a hobby, before enrolling in this course. It is quite good and I intend to place it on display in our art cabinet in the corridor. If she continues this good work, I think I shall suggest she be given special-interest opportunities in this subject.

Mildred is a most delightful student. She seems to have a good mind and a very pleasant disposition. It is a genuine pleasure to have her in class.

In accordance with the policy of the Winfield schools to bring all such achievements to the attention of the parents, the following letter was dispatched from the principal's office.

I was delighted and pleased in passing down the corridors this morning to note that some of Mildred's art work was on display in the art cabinet. I recalled then that Miss G. had placed a report on my desk a few days ago calling my attention to the splendid work Mildred is doing.

Miss G. is most enthusiastic about the progress Mildred is making in art. At the time of enrollment we were not certain whether it was advisable for her to enroll in this course so late in the semester. Miss G. is certain now that this was no mistake. Miss G. thinks Mildred has such a special interest in art that she will probably recommend soon that Mildred take advantage of a set-up we have in this school to provide maximum opportunities for pupils with special interests.

We are pleased to note also that Mildred shows real adaptability and is adjusting herself easily and readily to the life of our school.

I am happy to forward this report to you and assure you that it is a real pleasure to have Mildred as a student in our school.

The report of Mildred's teacher and a copy of the principal's letter are on file in Mildred's personal record file. It is needless

to say that Mildred's parents are among the strongest boosters in the community for the school.

The administrative regulations for teachers in the Winfield High School make it imperative that all disciplinary difficulties that arise in the classroom of serious enough consequence to warrant removal from the classroom require that such pupils be sent directly to the office of the high-school principal. Here the pupil may be detained or sent to the study hall, as the situation demands, until the teacher submits a written report of the difficulty. After this report is made and the case disposed of, the report is placed in the personal record file of the pupil, with a notation on the report of the disposition of the case. In this respect the file becomes a disciplinary case record if necessary.

Sponsors and coaches of plays, those in charge of banquets, concerts, recitals, and activities of sufficient merit to have printed programs are asked to hand in copies of programs for those who have major responsibilities and to make any notation commendable or otherwise concerning the way in which the pupil discharged the responsibility. It is obvious, of course, in the case of large-group organizations that this is inadvisable and inexpedient, and so this procedure applies for the most part only to those who have major parts in the presentation. Likewise, at the time of the annual election, the election boards are asked to hand in copies of ballots for all candidates in the elections, with the notation as to whether the candidate was elected or not.

Much responsibility for providing information is placed on the homeroom and homeroom teachers. In addition to case-study, guidance, and personnel information there is much other information that can be provided by the homeroom. Resourceful and skillful homeroom teachers have homeroom officers provide this. Reports are asked from homerooms calling the attention of the principal's office to serious illness, accident, or entrance to the hospital of some member of

the homeroom. Reports are also asked in instances of death of parents or other members of the family or some member of the homeroom. Frequently these reports concern some special achievement or incident out of school. A vocational-agriculture homeroom last year reported that a member had won a cash prize offered by a nationally known dairy journal for achievement in a special judging contest sponsored by that paper. The same homeroom reported later that a member had been elected to a State Farmer Degree in the Future Farmer organization. Another homeroom reported a member had a mental and nervous breakdown and had entered a sanitarium. Homeroom teachers frequently report visits to the homes of homeroom members and conferences with parents. The homeroom is urged to collect newspaper clippings concerning homeroom members and turn these in at the office. In all, the principal finds the homeroom a valuable agency in obtaining information about students, and rich in materials for making good-will contacts with the home.

The use of personal rating cards in the Winfield High School is in a process of experimentation. The school has adopted the University of Chicago's suggestion of rating

pupils by teacher judgment. The plan provides a card which is to be filled out by each teacher for each pupil under his supervision during the progress of a course or subject. Six major qualities are taken into consideration on this card in rating the pupil, which is made on a descriptive five-point scale. These six major qualities are: scholastic zeal, intellectual ability and aptitude, initiative, integrity, leadership, and social adaptability. Teachers must fill these out some time before the pupil completes the course. The pupil will carry on an average of four or five subjects a year which will mean that unless there is a repetition of teachers over a period of three to six years, depending on the number of years this covers, some fifteen to thirty different teacher ratings will be obtained.

The medical profession has long recognized the value of case-history procedure. This is an approach to that type of procedure. It is of interest to know that this system requires no great amount of clerical service. With the exception of some transcription, correspondence, and filing the major part of the reports will come from teachers, supervisors, sponsors, and homeroom officers as a part of their routine responsibilities.

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# Training in Service by Coöperative Rating of Teaching

James D. Shaner

**EDITOR'S NOTE.** *For years administrators have been advocating the practice of encouraging active coöperation by teachers in the effort to solve administrative problems. The following article by James D. Shaner, principal of the North Union High School in Uniontown, Pennsylvania, offers us a concrete instance of a successful effort to kindly, alert, creative, and coöperative effort on the part of teachers.*

A. D. W.

**T**HE COÖPERATIVE EVOLUTION of a rating system is a very excellent supervisory procedure in itself.<sup>1</sup>

Early in the 1931-1932 school term the new principal suggested to the teaching staff of the high school that a study of teacher rating would be a beneficial project for the faculty and would perhaps vitalize the teachers' meetings. The suggestion did not create much enthusiasm and a few bolder spirits in the group spoke against all ratings, declaring that a rating was practically worthless as a measure of the teaching. After some discussion pro and con the matter was shelved, but the principal still retained the thought that a coöperative evolution of a rating system would be an excellent supervisory procedure.

In November 1931, the principal announced to the teachers that beginning immediately he would make a formal monthly rating of each teacher. The rating was to be made in duplicate; one copy to be filed in the office and one copy to be given to the teacher. After each rating the teacher was granted an afterschool conference with the principal to discuss the rating. For these monthly ratings a different scale was used each month. In the conferences the principal attempted to gain the confidence of the teacher and to discuss freely and frankly the rating. At the

same time he was hoping that a desire would be created to study the rating scales in use. The rating scales used during the school year included the Pennsylvania Teacher's Rating Score Card, a rating scale used by the county superintendent of schools, rating scales in use in the school districts of Los Angeles, Detroit, Cleveland, and Pittsburgh, and H. O. Rugg's Teacher-Rating Scale.

At the teachers' final meeting in May 1932, after each teacher had received seven formal ratings on seven different scales, the teachers were asked what they thought of the ratings of the term. It appeared that they had concluded that the rating scales used to date were chiefly concerned with the teacher and did not attempt to rate the teaching.

The apparent interest, together with the knowledge that all contracts had been renewed for the next school term, made the principal courageous enough to make again the suggestion that the group make a study of teacher rating. This time he met with success. Five of the twelve members of the staff who were planning to do graduate work during the summer agreed to take courses dealing with the supervision of instruction. The principal promised to collect rating scales and to requisition books dealing with teacher rating and supervision and have them on hand in September.

The first teachers' meeting of the 1932-1933 school year was held three days before the opening of school.

Approximately fifty different rating scales had been collected and the teachers' library contained twenty new volumes dealing with supervision and teacher rating. The principal was to make a formal rating in duplicate of each teacher each calendar month. Every month the teachers were to meet at the home of one of the group. At each meeting two

<sup>1</sup>Abriel S. Barr and William H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1926), page 464.

hours were to be used in discussion and criticism and the remainder of the evening in social activities. A chairman, who was to lead the discussion, was appointed for each meeting. The teachers agreed to analyze each of the rating scales in the collection and to do as much reading as possible. After the monthly ratings the teacher was allowed a half-hour conference period with the principal. The schedule was approved.

The nine rating scales used during the term were: The Boyce Card published in the *Fourteenth Yearbook*, the Schutte Scale for Rating Teachers, Rugg's Teacher-Rating Scale, Connor's Code, the Pennsylvania Teacher's Rating Score Card, Phillip's Self-Rating Scale for Teachers, and three scales compiled by the principal after he had made a thorough study of the collection of rating scales.

In January 1933, one of the teachers suggested that each teacher be given the opportunity to rate a fellow teacher. This suggestion was timely and met with instant approval. In February each teacher was scheduled to rate two fellow teachers and to be rated by two teachers.

This February teacher rating by a teacher brought excellent results. Thereafter the teachers were more sympathetic and more understanding of the work of the supervisor and were more willing to accept constructive criticism and discuss their own strengths and weaknesses. It also acted as a mirror in which the teacher saw herself in the classroom.

At the monthly teachers' meetings much dissatisfaction was voiced regarding the various scales studied. At the close of the term the conclusions of the group were:

1. The majority of scales in use rate the teacher rather than the teaching.
2. The majority of scales in use are subjective rather than objective.
3. Since the function of supervision is twofold, the evaluation of teaching and the improvement of teaching, the teacher and principal should cooperate in the ratings and should have frequent conferences regarding ratings and classroom supervision.

4. The study should be continued for another term and an attempt made on the part of the teachers to produce their own rating scale.

It was finally agreed to continue the project through another year.

During the summer of 1933 little work was done, but in September the group resumed their study with renewed interest. The two new members were duly initiated into the mysteries of the project and were eventually used as subjects upon which new scales were tried and results and reactions noted.

It was decided that each teacher produce a rating scale that she believed would evaluate teaching and aid in improving the teaching. In March 1934, a committee of teachers compiled one scale from the twelve separate scales made by the teachers and the principal working alone did the same. The two resulting scales were then mimeographed and each teacher was given the opportunity to rate two fellow teachers as in the previous year. The committee's scale was used for one of the ratings and the principal's scale was used for the other. At the April teachers' meeting the rating scales were criticized and revised. Following this meeting the principal compiled from the two revised scales the final result of a three-year attempt at cooperative supervision and, in May 1934, the principal made the final rating of each teacher on their own scale.

#### NORTH UNION HIGH SCHOOL RATING SCALE

NOTE: This scale represents the joint effort of faculty and principal of North Union High School. It is an attempt to rate teaching rather than the teacher. It is assumed that the teacher has a high personal rating as to character, personal appearance, training, general and specific knowledge, personality, and the like when she is appointed to the position.

Subject \_\_\_\_\_ Class \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher \_\_\_\_\_ Rated by \_\_\_\_\_

Score each item on a five-point basis: 5—superior, 4—high, 3—average, 2—low, 1—inferior. Use the numerals when scoring.

1. Are the physical conditions of the classroom such that they are conducive to good work?
2. Are the pupils properly seated? Have de-

- fective eyesight, defective hearing, height of pupil, pupil progress, etc., been considered?
3. Is there an atmosphere of coöperation in the classroom?
  4. Was there a wise selection of content and a logical treatment of the material?
  5. Does the teaching show an organization of subject matter?
  6. Does discipline inhere in the work?
  7. Does the teaching develop self-control on the part of the pupil?
  8. Does the teaching combine constructive criticism and pupil encouragement?
  9. Does the teaching help the pupil to discriminate between main facts and collateral facts?
  10. Does the teaching recognize individual differences and contradictory traits in the pupils?
  11. Does the teaching harmonize the individual and social needs?
  12. Is it evident that the pupil knows and accepts as valid the aims and objectives of the subject?
  13. Does the teaching diminish the need and the amount of teacher guidance and direction?
  14. Does the teaching induce remedial thinking on the part of the pupil?
  15. Are the pupils taught to diagnose their own difficulties?
  16. Does the teaching incite the pupil to evaluate his own achievements?
  17. Does the teaching show teacher direction or guidance of the learning activities in
    - a) Daily work of the group?
    - b) Individual work?
    - c) Oral and written reports of pupils to the class?
    - d) Socialization of classroom work?
    - e) Discussion led by the teacher?
  18. Does the teaching inspire the pupil to creative activity?
  19. Does the teaching develop the right attitude on the part of the pupil towards constructive criticism?
  20. Does the teaching incite the pupil to do original work?
  21. Does the teaching assist the pupil to anticipate results?
  22. Does the teaching stimulate initiative on the part of the pupil?
  23. Does the teaching encourage the pupil to intellectual independence?
  24. Is the pupil free to express his own opinion and is his point of view given worthy consideration?
  25. Does the teaching urge the pupil to sustained application?
  26. Is consideration for others a part of the teaching?
  27. Does the teaching lead to reflective thinking?
  28. Does the teaching develop the scientific attitude in the pupil?
  29. Are the pupils learning to do by doing?
  30. Does the teaching supplement the textbook or material on hand?
  31. Does the teaching associate past experiences with present attempts at acquisition of new experiences?
  32. Does the teaching consider the superior pupil and enrich his field of endeavor?
  33. Does the teaching motivate the work so that the interest does not lag?
  34. Does the teaching
    - a) Increase the pupil's knowledge?
    - b) Develop valuable skills?
    - c) Develop desirable habits?
    - d) Improve the pupil's tastes?
    - e) Give the pupil a set of ideals?
    - f) Train in coöperation?
    - g) Improve the ability to study?
    - h) Induce civic-mindedness?
  35. Is assigning new work and directing study a part of the teaching?
  36. Does the assignment create a desire for further investigation on the part of the pupil?
  37. Was the scope and purpose of the assignment clearly recognized by the pupils?

## QUANTITATIVE TRANSLATION

	Score	
	(5 × number of S's, etc.)	
Total number of 5's	_____	_____
Total number of 4's	_____	_____
Total number of 3's	_____	_____
Total number of 2's	_____	_____
Total number of 1's	_____	_____
	Total Score _____	

## NORMAL FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

(5-20-50-20-5)

Superior teaching ..	234 to 240
Good teaching ....	196 to 233
Average teaching ..	93 to 195
Poor teaching ....	55 to 92
Inferior teaching ..	48 to 54

## CHECK LISTS

Check the type or types of lesson used.

1. Drill
2. Contract plan
3. Question-answer recitation
4. Directed study
5. Socialized recitation

6. Developmental discussion
7. Mastery technique
8. Laboratory
9. Reflective thinking
10. Project
11. Demonstration—Pupil — Teacher —
12. Lecture
13. Appreciation
14. Dictation to class
15. Problem method
16. Topical
17. Oral
18. Written
19. Review

Check the type or types of pupil response.

1. Word and phrase
2. Sentence
3. Topical
4. Note taking
5. Textbook
6. Demonstration
7. Questions
8. Discussions
9. Games
10. Dramatizations
11. Oral
12. Written
13. Reports
14. Conversation

Check the type or types of motivation used.

1. Illustration
2. Games
3. Life career
4. Dramatization
5. Competition
6. Service
7. Loyalty
8. Marks
9. Privileges
10. Praise
11. Leadership
12. Interests
13. Displays
14. Awards
15. Construction
16. Practical use
17. Discipline
18. Problems
19. Creation

Check the motivating devices used.

1. Blackboard
2. Maps
3. Globes
4. Charts
5. Objects
6. Pictures
7. Diagrams
8. Textbook illustrations
9. Models
10. Specimens
11. Action
12. Slides
13. Motion pictures

At the close of the school year in June 1934 the teachers made the following conclusions:

1. A broader knowledge of supervision in general and rating scales in particular had been gained from the study.
2. A spirit of loyalty, coöperation, and mutual helpfulness existed during the period covered by the study that did not exist to such marked degree previous to the study.
3. Rating the teaching at regular intervals is essential to good supervision.
4. The teaching improved constantly during the study because for the first time the teachers actually diagnosed their teaching and attempted to overcome their weaknesses.
5. The teachers had advanced professionally.
6. The teachers' meetings were vitalized and full of interest and inspiration.
7. The immediate aim, the improvement of teaching, and the final aim, teacher growth, of supervision were accomplished to a great degree.
8. The study as a whole was an excellent means of training the teacher in service.

The principal thoroughly enjoyed the work of the three years. To supervise the instruction was a real pleasure. There were no petty jealousies and no hints of prejudice. Constructive criticism was welcomed. A friendly attitude prevailed between teacher and principal. The teacher and principal were working together to give the boy and girl a better opportunity to become a worthwhile citizen.

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# Training for Civic and Political Responsibilities

M. B. Keck

EDITOR'S NOTE: *M. B. Keck is a teacher in the social-studies department of the Marshall High School in Minneapolis. In his article which follows we feel that he very properly emphasizes the importance of the personal qualifications and attitudes of the teachers who are to guide high-school pupils in the development of desirable social traits.*

A. D. W.

**T**HE MOST CHALLENGING responsibility of the schools today is to provide adequate civic and political training for a rapidly changing chaotic society.

One does not fully realize how staggering this challenge is until he intently focuses his attention on our present society. A brief survey of life in America today leads one to ask such questions as:

Is the machinery of democracy functioning as it should?

Can the leader who refuses to play politics remain in office?

What can be done to curb crime and lawlessness?

What is the best method of liquor control?

Would minority groups deny the masses a fair deal?

Why are leading nations forsaking democratic principles and accepting rule by force?

Are human interests being placed ahead of property interests?

Can we hope for world peace as long as capitalists are permitted to manufacture munitions for profit?

Why has society permitted schools to close and force youth into idleness?

Why are some people forced to live in an un-American manner?

Is wealth in the hands of a few?

Is a significant part of the public press controlled by selfish interests?

What should be done about this bombardment of misleading advertising and propaganda?

What will be the effect on this country of the disintegration and stagnation that results from unemployment?

Is the church going on the rocks?

Are parts of the Constitution out of date and inadequate?

How can economic security be provided?

Should people be in want in the midst of an abundance of everything?

Can our natural resources be used for the welfare of society?

Civic and political affairs are confused and muddled. We are told that the entire world is passing through a revolution. Many recognize and admit the inconsistencies in social, economic, and educational planning today. One great need is for leaders—men with ability, not cheap politicians. The other need in coping with this present social and economic disturbance is worthy citizens—real men and women, citizens who recognize right leadership when they see it. With competent leaders and worthy followers there is hope. With a shortage of either, the outlook is discouraging and gloomy.

The public school is one of the agencies in America today on which we depend for sure and permanent national success. If the New Deal succeeds it will be largely due to the fact that our people are adequately prepared to assume the civic and political responsibilities of the new order. Things are going to be different. On March 5, 1934, President Roosevelt said, "We are not going back to the old conditions or to the old methods."

The school that prepares youth of today to live as adults tomorrow in a rapidly changing civilization will be

The school that is led by an alert capable principal.

The school that is well organized.

The school that possesses live and growing teachers.

The school that gives pupils responsibilities in classroom organization.

The school that is attempting a progressive up-to-the-minute curriculum.

*The Principal.* No organization is any better than its leadership. As the principal is, so goes the school. The principal who is passive, too conservative, and self-satisfied will soon be the leader of a group of teachers who are, for the most part, marking time. Don Herald writing in *Today* says that he did not have many teachers who could not have been replaced by phonographs.

The principal must be a vigorous, intelligent, stimulating individual if his school is to be a vital force in the lives of boys and girls. A rapidly changing society demands courageous, pioneering leaders in our schools. The live principal will demand up-to-date civic and political training.

*School Organization.* A school may be housed in a beautiful building and have better than average teachers and still be a very ineffective influence upon children because the organization is sloppy and inadequate. Almost every one knows some high-school boy who has developed bad civic attitudes because of lax administration in the school. The administrative organization makes it easy or difficult for a boy to form the habit of becoming dishonest, irregular in attendance, conceited, snobbish, uncoöperative, indifferent, unreliable, careless about public property, and inconsiderate of others. Do such attitudes as these form an introduction to civic attitudes? They most certainly do. Without any doubt, there are careless administrators who should be sentenced because they have permitted boys through lax organization to form detrimental civic attitudes. The administrative, supervisory, and guidance organization either adds to, or detracts from, the effectiveness of the school as a builder of men and women.

*The Teachers.* Any one who has ever had a child in the home soon reaches the conclusion that youth learns more by example than precept. In other words, a child does as you do, not as you tell him to do. If this be true, no teacher is worth his pay unless his habits and personality are worthy of being copied by youth. First of all, the real teacher must

possess a mature, rich, full, inspiring personality. The teacher who falls short of this is a "flat tire."

It is impossible to talk about training for civic and political responsibilities without discussing the teacher. How can a child be taught tolerance and be dealt with by a narrow intolerant teacher? The best insurance for the child developing wholesome civic and political attitudes in the classroom is the association of a growing, pioneering, studying, wholesome man or woman. Every teacher, not only the social-science teacher, is a builder of civic attitudes. This is a fact that cannot be dodged; some of these children are going to be business men, dentists, farmers, and mechanics—others will be doctors, stenographers, and housewives, but all are going to be *citizens*. It must be recognized that every teacher is a positive, negative, or neutral factor in developing the citizens into whose hands the destiny of this nation is to be placed. No teacher has a right to criticize our law enforcement today if he makes rules which youngsters are permitted carelessly to disregard. The need then is for more teachers who teach boys and girls in addition to subject matter.

*Classroom Organization.* Pupils grow only as they assume responsibilities. The organization of the classroom must then provide for pupils to assume responsibilities, not just to sit. The room organization should consist of a student teacher, host and hostess, janitor, librarian, announcement page, paper and grade monitors, a bulletin-board committee, and other officers. This organization should be changed frequently to provide opportunities for many. It must function, and not be merely an "on paper" organization. Think of the civic training this would provide if every class were so organized. The pupil would learn to work with the team, take orders from a fellow citizen, do the right thing even if some one were not watching him, take the lead, take the responsibility for results. When we have more pupil participation and less teacher talk we will be

providing the type of training that prepares adults to assume civic and political responsibilities.

*The Curriculum.* What shall the child be taught? What should be the content of the subjects or courses he pursues? Our social-science textbooks will have to be rewritten in order to present the significant social and economic facts of the present. Children should not be shielded from revolutionary opinions. They should be free to think what the facts indicate. They should be seekers of the truth. This is the key to progress and improvement. When a government official is found to be dishonest, when the tax rate of a certain city is unbelievably low because it owns its power plant, when democracy fails to function, when a few have and control the wealth of a nation, when the armament industry attempts to promote war, when many are denied medical treatment because they have no money, when capitalism fails—we have material which should be taken into the classroom to make up the social-science curriculum. Only by this means can we build a

society that serves better the interests of all.

The school must not take itself too seriously as it is only one of several agencies providing continuous civic training of a positive or negative nature. The child spends only about one fifth of his waking hours in school and during the rest of the time the educative process is continuously going on. Every act of the individual molds his personality for better or worse. These outside educative institutions include Scouting, Sunday school, radio, the comic strip, advertising, *True Story*, motion pictures (the sex and crime clearing house), the park, the alley, and corner drug store. As Jesse Grumetti, writing in *High Points* says, "The school cannot carry on its work properly unless there is a tie-up between it and all other educative institutions."

With the right principal, proper school organization, real teachers, wise classroom organization, an adequate curriculum, and a tie-up with outside educational agencies it is possible to provide adequate training for civic and political responsibilities.

## Forthcoming Features

The contents of the February number will be supplied by some of our friends on the Pacific Coast. It will be entitled "Progress on the Pacific."

Dr. Willard S. Ford, deputy superintendent of the Los Angeles Schools, will contribute an article on the new organization of the school system of that city.

Mr. Argo, principal of the Sequoia High School, will write on the plan which he has perfected for the purpose of curriculum reorganization.

Professor William Proctor of Leland Stanford University will discuss ways in

which the college can contribute to the efforts being made by secondary schools in the direction of revising curricula.

From the John Burroughs Junior High School in Los Angeles we are to have an article on their system of group guidance.

Dr. Trillingham of the Los Angeles County Offices will discuss creative supervision in the secondary schools of that county.

The issue will be under the direction of Mr. Walter Nourse, vice principal of the John Burroughs Junior High School of Los Angeles.

# Morale in Educational Administration

Helen Ederle

EDITOR'S NOTE: *We believe that the following article by Helen Ederle of the Indiana State Teachers College directs attention to a very important phase of the relationship among teachers and between teachers and pupils.*

A. D. W.

IT IS NOT EASY to account for all the factors or elements that contribute to the success or failure of a given enterprise. Along with the material or objective elements there is present or lacking a subtle and indefinable element which is called "morale." Whatever the force is, it is dynamic, personal, emotional, captivating, and uplifting. Within the large field of mental hygiene are found many of the principles fundamental to the concept of morale. With the above points in mind, an attempt has been made to determine whether there is delineated clearly evidence which might be designated as morale in educational administration.

Hocking states his concept of morale forcefully when he says: "Morale is to the mind what condition is to the body. It is the perpetual ability to come back."<sup>1</sup>

In a recent speech delivered in Detroit, Dr. Edwin A. Lee of San Francisco stated: "Morale is a state of mind or inner sense of rightness, the cult of condition. It may be achieved through the sense of a great cause such as the education of youth, or the abolition of ignorance. Successive aids to morale are a sense of accomplishment, sense of recognition from superiors and co-workers, unity and group loyalty, physical condition, and a sense of humor."<sup>2</sup>

The industrial world has recognized the value of morale in the successful operation of its plants. While it is true that many efficiency experts put more stress upon the mechanistic aspects of production, other experts brought all the knowledge of medical

science, mental hygiene, psychology, economics, sociology—in fact, a philosophy of social welfare—to bear upon the process of production. So we hear of bonus plans, every employee a stockholder, health service, encouragement of creative ideas in manufacturing and distributing, participation in the formulation of policy such as that of the Columbia Conserve Company in Indianapolis known to every student of industrial personnel, recreation leagues including everything from handball to symphony orchestras, garden cities, medals and awards for meritorious service, at least publicity for such service, special training schools, insurance, compensation, retirement, etc. In spite of all these plans for improving morale and hence improving production, not all industrial concerns saw the wisdom of looking after such basic human needs. Sad to relate, educational organization has been even more tardy than industry in recognizing that much human energy is absolutely wasted when morale is not at its best.

Teacher-training programs in the future will need to stress concepts of social psychology and mental hygiene in the hope that administrators and teachers will be able to detect in themselves, as well as in others, evidences of morale, since strain and conflict are far too prevalent because one individual is unable to put himself in another's place. Often the human aspect has been lost sight of completely in our highly centralized educational machine. How different the atmosphere might be if all concerned would consciously recognize and strive to foster conditions promoting morale.

As another means of stimulating morale, codes of ethics have been evolved in local systems, State units, departmental organizations and, finally, a code for the nation at large was formulated by the National Education Association in 1929. All of these are

<sup>1</sup> W. E. Hocking, *Morale and Its Enemies* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1918), p. 14.

<sup>2</sup> Edwin A. Lee, "Occupations," *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, vol. 12, p. 78, February 1934.

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permeated with the ideal of service. If the principles enunciated were to become living realities in the lives of those who outwardly subscribe to the codes, school morale would be immeasurably improved. In addition to the suggestions already included, please note the democratic concept as set forth by Goll who believes that the principal's code of professional ethics should include the principles governing his relations with: (1) community and civic officials, (2) teachers, (3) pupils, (4) parents of pupils, (5) colleagues, (6) the superintendent and his associates, (7) assistants other than teachers, (8) board of education, (9) the profession at large, (10) commercial houses and enterprises, (11) relations with himself including professional training, growth, and personal character. The teacher-principal relationship conducive to morale is fostered thus:

Provide for and stimulate the teacher's independence, initiative, self-reliance, self-expression, and self-improvement. This rule implies an essential democracy in school control which effectively enables the teachers to *participate actively in the formulation of school policy and the solution of all school problems*. Once determined, policies and procedures must be loyally supported by all. Faculty unity is powerfully reflected in the entire school organization.<sup>8</sup>

Since morale is deeply rooted in the emotions, it is radiated from one personality to another. No one can estimate its power. The techniques used at one level, if psychologically sound, are useful at all levels to a surprising extent. Larson believes "that the morale of each individual would be improved if he might have at least once or twice each week the thrill that comes from the consciousness of worth-while achievement."<sup>9</sup> (The writer agrees but wishes to add that the appreciation must be genuine and sincere—the spontaneous expression that springs from the heart

undefiled by convention and selfish motive.) Therefore, Larson advocates a program of activities to show appreciation for the successes of pupils, such as wholesome publicity for curricular and extracurricular achievements. He concludes with the statement that "administrators and teachers can well afford to devote much time, careful study, and skillful effort to the problem of building school morale."<sup>10</sup>

It is interesting to note that Larson's idea of the systematic development of school morale is reiterated by another writer whose language is more vivid and more forceful. Hockett inspires teachers to help pupils find their way out of chaos when he says:

Possibly our greatest opportunity is to build morale in children. Young people live in a confused and confusing world. The present is an age of strain and distraction for all. Paradoxes and conflicts confound us. Personalities are pulled asunder by mutually exclusive allegiances. Ideals and expediency clash. Standards change before our very eyes. Falsehood wears the mask of truth. False prophets through deception make us parties to our own deception.<sup>11</sup>

If children alone were confused, it would not be so tragic. But teachers and administrators feel the need of spiritual strength, faith, and courage in these days of rapid change. And with that thought let us pass to a brief statement of the actual need of morale in educational administration.

In the period of expansion and prosperity, scientific measurement, curriculum revision, research, supervision, highly centralized administration, and numerous other educational developments or trends, the mental-hygiene movement along with the concept of morale indicative of loyalty to a cause has been a bit late in attracting much support. We are beginning to awaken to the fact that million-dollar school plants often do not have as occupants happy and productive teachers and pupils. Fears, tensions, conflicts, and all

<sup>8</sup> Reinhold W. Goll, "An Introduction of a Code of Ethics for School Principals," *Elementary School Journal*, volume 32, pp. 196-206 November 1931 (Quotation, p. 197).

<sup>9</sup> Emil L. Larson, "The Development of School Morale," *Education*, vol. 53, pp. 104-107, May 1933.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>11</sup> John A. Hockett, "Social Studies in a Confused World," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII, 2, p. 77, October 1933.

other mental hazards stalk the corridors and enter without invitation administrative offices and classrooms. Something is wrong with the human-relations program; the personnel is disgruntled, maladjusted, and mentally ill. A tremendous amount of energy is being wasted; or, if not wasted, at least is not producing the maximum output.

Therefore, it is only natural that administrators and teachers here and there are beginning to analyze the present situation more deeply and to fall back upon the elusive but powerful factor known as morale. With thousands of teachers unemployed, with checks fewer and of less value for those fortunate enough to be employed, with powerful groups assailing the school system on all sides, it is high time that something be done to promote and sustain the morale of the classroom teacher above all others. No one has dared to describe what the mental perils in teaching are at the present. In discussing this question Garry Myers asserted that "administrators and supervisors must help the teacher find rich satisfactions in those intangibles which will promote mental health, and, to that degree, the mental health and lasting happiness of her children."<sup>7</sup>

By combing the suggestions which the military and industrial experts have evolved with those of the psychologists and mental hygienists, administrators have ample aid. What is most needed is the open-minded attitude that spiritual values, while nonmeasurable, exist; and that progress, accomplishment, and service cannot be estimated without reckoning with the morale of the group. Teachers are human beings with hopes, aspirations, struggles, heartaches, desires for fairness, justice, understanding, sympathy, and worthy appreciations of their work. Proper cultivation and insight will promote courage, faith, and happiness which make possible efficiency and service beyond the dream of most administrators. Without morale the noblest project ever planned may

remain forever on paper. Every administrator should humbly try to put himself in the classroom teachers' place.

Not only must administrators keep their faith with classroom teachers, but the entire membership of the teaching profession will need to fight to save the best of the entire educational program as economies become the smoke screen for the real program which makes the "American dream of equality of educational opportunity" farther and farther removed from even approximate realization. Teachers will need to come to the rescue of fellow teachers as well as children if the Chicago situation is taken as the model in other parts of the country. It is well to remember that the French held Verdun with almost superhuman strength as they fought for their homes while "they shall not pass" was the prayer. Likewise, the American teachers are beginning to rally to the cry of "our schools must not go." The recent meeting in Cleveland gave evidence of loyalty to a great cause which will necessitate morale equal to that demonstrated at Verdun. Are those men and thousands of other men and women willing to follow an ideal; willing to follow inspired and sane leaders? Faith in the "American dream of equality of opportunity" plus solidarity and courage will result in ultimate victory for the right. Surely leaders in educational administration will do all that is possible to build morale—"the perpetual ability to come back." In the light of the data presented in this paper, one must conclude that no clear-cut movement towards morale in educational administration is outlined. Indirectly, however, there are encouraging signs of a spiritual awakening. Consequently, on the basis of a philosophic hunch, the writer predicts that out of the depression there ought to come a planned program for the promotion of morale in educational administration. The value of such a program cannot be estimated. Fear will give way to strength, poise, and loyalty to a great cause. There will be victory because morale is "the perpetual ability to come back."

<sup>7</sup> Garry Myers, "Gains from Losses," *Journal of Education*, p. 390, October 2, 1933.

## Others Say

Floyd E. Harshman

The following are excerpts from a report of reconstructed teaching and materials observed in schools in New Jersey.

Readers are asked to send reports of instances of progressive practices to the editor of this column. They will be published as received.

### *At Roselle, New Jersey*

Mr. Roupp of Roselle has worked out an individual instruction or Morrison Mastery Plan in physics. Each individual travels at his own rate, taking pre-test, readings, laboratory exercises, and final checking test in each unit. The plan provides for varying abilities in an exceptional way. This always impresses one as being suited to present-day groups.

The atmosphere of freedom and the attitude of work are two features of the class that strike one immediately. Every pupil is busy upon his problems and the progress is constant.

Mr. Roupp thinks that one of his problems is that of keeping the pupils' work scattered so that all are working upon different assignments. The division of work is accomplished by assigning read-

ings which call for diversified types of experiments. The results seem to justify the plan.

In plane geometry, Mr. Schmieghe has worked out a very interesting contract plan, using assignment sheets and the individual-instruction idea. His work in guiding individuals and working with each as he needs assistance is excellent. The class works well, is orderly, and progresses rapidly. The plan apparently promotes individual excellence on assigned tasks. The instructor is free to confer with small groups and individuals whenever they need direction. There is a work atmosphere which impresses the observer as conducive to real learning.

Mr. Stearns puts on a very fine demonstration in modern literature for non-college-preparatory pupils. He reads at the beginning of the class hour in order to interest his pupils in improved types of literature. Following this, pupils report on modern novels, travel stories, biographies, etc., which they have recently read. Everything is up to the minute and is the choice of the pupil. Each one keeps notes setting forth his opinions of what he has read. Pupils are keenly interested in a level of reading

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which is much above the plane usually followed by groups of this kind.

This is plainly an experiment in reconstruction of materials and the use of new ideas. In fact, the eleventh- and twelfth-year English courses at Roselle are reconstructed throughout for the new fifty per cent of pupils.

Written and oral exposition, business English, modern literature, American literature, creative writing, journalism, and English literature, all according to new plans and with a new ideal promoting them, are included.

The result is new interest in higher levels of reading without resorting to so-called classics.

Mr. Gilligan has a class of about twenty pupils in ninth-year English, most of them colored boys who are reading and enjoy telling about the *Odyssey*. Strangely enough, they do a good job of telling parts of the story. This is an experiment in reconstructing subject matter to suit the boys.

The hour is conducted as a literary club. Then, as critic, the teacher uses the exercise as a means of correcting faulty expression. He says little while the boys are reporting: "Fine, very good, good work." Then he asks for pupil comment and criti-

cism. If the boys fail to pick out imperfections of expression, the teacher calls attention to them. However, the enjoyment of the hour is not marred by teacher interruptions. The teacher functions as a part of the literary club.

#### *At Montclair High School*

A correlated course in American history and literature is being worked out by Miss Woodward and Miss North. Pupils spend three periods with these teachers and the procedure is sufficiently informal to stimulate increased responsibility on the part of the students. The group is an excellent college-preparatory one which has shown "ability and stability."

Less than the usual time is spent in reciting and much more is devoted to conferences and small group discussions. Each group is responsible for reporting its findings to the class.

Without listing the units of work attacked, it need only be said that in each period of United States history both the literature and history are considered, also sectional history and literature.

The results of the experiment so far are quite gratifying to those planning and conducting it.

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# School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon

## TEACHER'S STATUS

A teacher on tenure who refuses to sign an agreement to waive any excess salary due her over salary offered or less than the salary to which she is legally entitled or refuses to accept an appointment for less salary than that which was rightfully hers does not lose any right nor can she be considered as having refused the appointment. Permanent teachers under statute have a vested right to be so classified and to teach as permanent instructors, and the board has no right at any time to make rules in conflict with the law concerning these teachers.

Nothing more is required to classify a teacher as a permanent teacher under the Tenure Act but a reappointment after three consecutive appointments. A teacher on tenure is not bound, on pain of forfeiture of permanency of status, to abandon her bona fide views as to compensation to which she is entitled. A teacher who does not teach the first month of the school year because the board of education refuses to permit her to do so, but thereafter reappoints her during the same school year, continues on tenure as she will be considered

to have taught consecutive years despite the break in employment enforced upon her by the board.

School boards that unethically attempt to break tenure of teachers who are about to be placed on tenure by asking a teacher to resign and a few weeks later reappointing the teacher in order to begin a three-year trial period over again are openly, wilfully, and flagrantly evading the law but, fortunately, the courts have little sympathy with racketeering of this type in places where the highest ethics should be in evidence at all times. Courts have little sympathy with law evaders, be they school boards or bootleggers.

The court said in substance that no school board has any right to take for granted that a teacher on tenure has resigned when she refuses to accept or sign a contract for another year at a salary far less than that to which she is entitled. No new contract is necessary for a teacher on tenure to the continuance of her status. This may be considered an outstanding case of teacher protection against wilful attempts to destroy a teacher's equity.

Abraham v. Sims et al, School Trustees, 34 Pac. (2d) 790 (July 12, 1934).

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A child was refused admission to the public schools because of alleged low mentality. The child had suffered a brain injury at or about the time of birth and was subnormal. The school board passed a rule that all children below 50 I.Q. and special or custodial types be excluded from school.

The father claimed that the public schools were open to all children between certain ages; that the compulsory school law requires the attendance of children in school; and that his child was of compulsory age.

This case is of great importance as it appears to be the first case in the United States where the power to exclude any child within the prescribed age upon the basis of an intelligence test has been contested.

The Board of Education claimed that State education departments can prescribe standard examinations or tests by which it may be determined whether or not a certain child of school age is capable of profiting substantially by further instructions. The Binet test showed the child to have an I.Q. of 47. The superintendent claimed that he did not rely upon the tests alone, but that consideration of the lack of progress of the child over a period of two or three years was also given.

Other tests by other psychiatrists and the Brush

Foundation showed 44 in September 1932; 61 in November 1932; 47 in May 1933; and 55 on October 23, 1933.

In the testimony given in this case Dr. Henry H. Goddard made the following reply to the question "Would you say that if children having an I.Q. of 50 are considered educable, a child having an I.Q. of 47 should also be considered so?"

"I might answer yes to that question, and then you would run down three points more and I would get into trouble. The fact is that 50 or 47 or 53, or anything in that line, in itself is not enough. The moment you fix a point of that sort you get into difficulty. One child with an I.Q. of 40 is more educable, perhaps, than another child with an I.Q. of 50."

The court in passing on this case said, "It is to be borne in mind, however, that not only compulsory attendance is required by our laws, but also that the right to attend our public school belongs to the people. Education of all youth is deemed of paramount importance. It is the foundation of popular government and is considered so essential that between certain ages children must attend schools."

The question arises as to where the authority to exclude a child of low mentality is vested. No child can be excluded from school without the

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final approval or determination of the State department of education. To exclude a child from school, strict adherence to the statute must be complied with and a mental test alone by local school au-

thorities is not sufficient to exclude a child from public school.

Board of Education v. Goldman, 191 N.E. 914, 47 Ohio, App. 41 (April 2, 1934).

## Book Reviews

*Journalism for High Schools*, by WILLIAM N. OTTO AND MARY E. MARYE. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934, xi + 412 pages, \$1.48.

The high-school publication is primarily an organ of expression for students. It serves as a means for students to present their opinions and views creatively.

A course in journalism should offer students an opportunity for clearness and conciseness in writing, and an increased sensitiveness in their surroundings. Professional journalism as the student's life work should not be encouraged, but only a bird's-eye view of the field should be shown.

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chapter on the history of American journalism. Business management and advertising are given a new evaluation, and the introduction of the N. S. P. A. score sheet, whereby the results might be judged, adds a goal for the high-school journalist.

In the entirety, advisers to publications, whether beginning with a new staff or continuing with experienced "journalists," will find this revised text a teachable, adaptable, and practical book for use in journalism classes. The student can use it as a valuable handbook and, if followed, it should certainly bring worthy results.

DON T. DUFF

*Curriculum Laboratory*, School of Education, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. November 1, 1934, \$ .20.

*Curriculum Laboratory* has previously received notice in this journal. The present issue presents an organized list of curriculum topics of world-history classification under eleven main divisions. The purpose of this study was to determine the present existing topics in world history. The list was compiled after an analysis of thirteen textbooks and seven courses of study. It is comprehensive, well-organized, and should be of real value to teachers of social studies.

A. D. W.

*The Open Door English Series for the Junior High School*, by ZENOS E. SCOTT, HARRIET E. PEET, GERTRUDE L. ROBINSON, and GLADYS M. BIGELOW. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934.

Book One, Seventh Year, xii + 322 pp., \$ .88.

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MARIE F. HOAR

*The Organization and Administration of Curriculum Programs*, by CLINTON C. TRILLINGHAM. Los Angeles, California: University of Southern California Press, 1934, xv + 199 pp.

Time was, and that not so long ago, when curriculum making was a relatively simple job. In highly centralized States one took the suggested syllabi and time schedule, issued by the State department of education and made whatever modification he deemed desirable in the light of available textbooks and the special emphases advocated by the superintendent of schools or principal, or demanded by the social public opinion reflected in boards of education and parent-teacher associations. In States which did not issue syllabi, one selected textbooks that coincided with one's conception of what spelling or Latin or geography should be, and these texts became the courses of study. There were sometimes other reasons for selecting books, but one seldom admitted it even to himself.

Method consisted of procedures for getting children to learn what the texts and syllabi prescribed; it was changed fairly often but always in terms of this narrow criterion. Syllabi and texts changed, too; generally to give span and time to aspects that had gained support in general community sentiment; occasionally, however, the personal preferences of the local educator was the reason for the change.

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cial institutions curriculum departments have developed in many cities and in some smaller districts. In very many school systems, teachers' committees are seriously engaged in curriculum revision. Whatever the compromises made to meet college demands, State department requirements, and vested interests within the district, some definite orientation of the curriculum in terms of objectives and intrinsic methodology is attempted.

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P. W. L. C.

*Juvenile Probation*, by BELLE B. BEARD. New York: American Book Company, 1934, xiv + 219 pp.

This book presents an analysis of the case records of five hundred children studied at the Judge Baker Guidance Clinic and placed on probation in the Juvenile Court of Boston. "It represents a sincere and capable attempt," says William Healy in the *Foreword*, "to find out what can be done for delinquents on probation."

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In a day when crime prevention and control has become so definitely recognized as a coöperative responsibility of social institutions with which the public school must be counted, this book holds out the knowledge of methods and difficulties and potential success that should be possessed by every teacher.

P. W. L. C.

*Practice Work in College English*, by JOHN C. FRENCH and PAUL M. WHEELER. New York: American Book Company, 1934, 235 pp.

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